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MODERN
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

EGERTON SMITH, M.A., I.E.S.,

PRINCIPAL AND PROFESSOR OF ENGLISH.

KRISHNAGAR COLLEGE, BENGAL.

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PREFACE

THE author makes no apology for adding to the numerous grammar text-books that are on the market. Most of them are so obstinate in their refusal to take any notice of the more enlightened modern outlook upon grammar and the teaching of it that they are positively vicious compilations, making an unnecessary addition to the already heavy burden of the Indian schoolboy, who has to grapple with the notorious difficulties of a complex language. Most of these wretched books are mere booksellers' ventures and avowedly mere compilations from grammars now hopelessly out of date.

Grammar, according to the old ideas, was a set of rules, dealing with form rather than function, orthographic rather than phonetic, supposed to be binding on all would be correct writers. Reaction against the old formal grammar went so far that grammar teaching practically disappeared from many elementary schools in England, with the lamentable result that pupils failed to realise that there were any laws of language. To end this anarchy grammar was brought back : but better aims and methods in grammar teaching have appeared. It has been recognised that English is a living, not a dead, language ; that the sentence, not the word, is the unit of speech : that grammar is concerned with the functions of words, phrases, and clauses, as much as with their forms ; and that, so far as it is concerned with form, sounds are of more importance than spelling (the former being very badly represented by the latter).

Thus conceived, grammar may be made a profitable and an interesting study, and indeed a knowledge of the principles of sentence structure is "vital to all linguistic study" (Report on the Teaching of English, p. 278, Mr. J. E. Barton). As Professor Wyld has said,

"The study of English Grammar is really a preparation for the careful and intelligent study of language."

Apart from all this there is one point on which the compilers might have made their compilations more up to date with a little trouble had they cared. About 15 years ago a Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology (including representatives from various Teachers' Associations and other learned societies) framed a "simplified and consistent scheme of grammatical nomenclature." The value of uniformity was so evident that the recommendations met with general acceptance, and in 1921 were supported by the Committee on the Teaching of English appointed by the President of the Board of Education. I have therefore adopted what has now become the authorized terminology ; but for the convenience of the older teachers I have included within square brackets the older names to which they have been accustomed. The latter, however, should not be taught ; and I hope that a new edition will soon appear without them.

Phonetic methods have been so persistently neglected in this country that unfortunately the time is not ripe for this Grammar to be given the thorough-going phonological basis that it should have ; and I have been reluctantly forced to consider expediency and admit compromises in this matter. Yet I hope that pupils will be led to realize something of the considerable phonetic uniformity that is disguised by our imperfect spelling system.

Guidance on punctuation is given from the earliest stage. If teachers and pupils will observe and remember this, many of the difficulties which, through neglect of an important subject, are experienced at a later stage will, I hope, disappear.

Accidence and syntax are not kept in separate divisions ; but form is treated with constant reference to function. Modern speech is taken as the basis ; obsolete and poetical expressions, if they are quoted at all, being definitely pointed out as such. Thus pupils will be guarded against one of their greatest pitfalls.

Part I deals with the Simple Sentence and outlines the general functions of the Parts of Speech. This should be mastered before the pupil proceeds further, no matter at what age or stage he takes up the book. Until he is well grounded in this, and has learnt to understand what work is done by the various parts of a simple sentence, it is useless for him to go on to the niceties of accidence and the subdivisions of nouns, pronouns, adverbs, etc. The absurdity of making a pupil learn all the different kinds of nouns, with their plural forms, and the even greater intricacies of the pronoun, with its gender and case-forms, etc., before he comes to the verb, must be evident to every intelligent teacher. Nothing is more likely to reduce boys to the level of parrots. Even the most advanced should be taken through part I, even if it is only by way of revision. They will certainly profit by the work, and will probably gain a clearer understanding of something that they have not yet grasped with any certainty.

The first time a definition appears it is not always intended to be pedantically exact and complete ; but it is enough for the needs of that particular stage. A definition is not of great importance at any stage, and it is notorious that some terms, *e. g.*, *object*, have never yet been adequately defined.

Without going to pedantic extremes (which would only waste the time of boys who know something of the grammar of their own language), the method is in general inductive. The pupil is intended to start by observing examples of parts of speech in use in actual sentences. Then when their function is explained, he may be allowed to learn definition, and will be better able to understand their meaning. It is useless to let a boy start by learning lists of names and definitions which mean nothing to him.

The order of the chapters in Part II, has been carefully planned to help the learner to grasp what is commonly not understood at all ; and fullness and clearness of explanation, not cryptic conciseness has

been the aim. The summaries in chapters 34—36 are given on the old plan, so that the pupil will thus get both points of view.

Whether chapters xvii—xviii are taken before Part II must be left to the discretion of the teacher. Beginners may omit these on a first reading : but if they do so, they will have to read them before reading chapter xxxi, on Relatives. It is, however, advisable to let even beginners realise that a clause, as well as a phrase, may be used instead of a simple adjective or adverb or noun ; and to avoid even easy complex sentences is an unnatural and unnecessary restriction that would tend to cramp a boy in his use of language. At least a general understanding, therefore, of this part is recommended for the first reading. Certain paragraphs marked with stars in this and in other parts may well be omitted on a first reading.

KRISHNAGAR,)
31st. March, 1926. }

E. SMITH.

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MODERN ENGLISH GRAMMAR

PART I

Analysis of the Simple Sentence – The Parts of Speech in Outline.

CHAPTER I

THE SENTENCE—SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

§ 1. Whenever we speak in order to express our thoughts and let another person know what we are thinking, we generally use groups of words called sentences.

1. The baby is sleeping.
2. Lions roar.
3. The boys have been bathing.
4. Her pen is broken.

Groups of words like these, which express our meaning fully, are **sentences**.

DEFINITION.—A group of words chosen and arranged so as to convey a complete meaning is called a **sentence**.

§ 2. If we take out the words (1) *The baby*, (2) *roar*, (3) *been bathing*, (4) *her pen*, from the sentences above and let them stand

alone, they may perhaps suggest some ideas, but they do not give full expression to our meaning ; they are not complete sentences. Nothing is said about the baby ; we are not told what animals roar, or who have been bathing, or what has happened to the pen.

Whenever we speak in order to convey our ideas to someone else we must have

- (a) something to speak about, and
- (b) something to say about it.

If you say "The baby is sleeping", you are speaking about the baby ; and what you say about the baby is that it "is sleeping." These words taken together give sense or meaning ; they express the ideas or thoughts that you have. If they are taken separately, they do not give full expression to the thought that you wish to convey to someone else.

DEFINITION.—The word or group of words which denotes the person or thing or place of which we are speaking is called the **subject** of the sentence.

The word or group of words by which we say something about a person, thing, or place is called the **predicate**.

Every sentence must have these two parts—
a subject and a predicate.

§ 3. *Punctuation.* Every sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop or its equivalent. In speaking, sentences are

separated from each other by pauses. In writing, these pauses are represented by stops.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the subjects of the following sentences :—

1. A merchant was selling rice. 2. Cows like grass. 3. Bees make honey. 4. A holy man was praying. 5. That boy is noisy. 6. Calcutta is a large city.

EXERCISE 2

Pick out the predicates of the following sentences :—

1. Rama is playing.
2. His father is working.
3. His sister is crying.
4. Hari has been running.
5. The dogs barked.
6. Snakes bite.

§ 4. Sometimes it may appear that a sentence has no subject or no predicate ; and sentences may in fact have only two words or even only one. This is because the subject or the predicate is sometimes so well understood that it is not necessary to express it.

If a teacher is giving an order to a boy, and says "Run" or "Run away", it is clear that the subject "You" is understood. If a baby, who has hardly learnt to talk, is pointing or even only looking at a flower and says "Pretty", we know that the meaning is "That is pretty". Similarly a small child may be eating a sweetmeat and simply say "Nice". In these cases the subject is implied or understood.

Again, an infant on seeing his father enter a room may simply say "Daddy". Some such predicate as "has come" is understood or implied.

In the everyday expression "Thank you", the subject "I" is understood. In fact, there is no sentence that has not both subject and predicate. If either is not expressed it is understood or implied.

§ 5. The *order* of words is also of importance. Such a grouping of words as "Been boys have the bathing?" conveys no clear meaning and does not make a sentence. The right order of words depends partly on the nature of the whole sentence ; for there are more kinds than one.

CHAPTER II

KINDS OF SENTENCE .

Nearly all the sentences that we have studied so far have been statements. Sentences, however, are also used to ask questions, to give commands, to express wishes, etc.

§ 6. The **chief kinds of sentences are :—**

(1) STATEMENTS—[Declaratory or Assertive Sentences]—You have a large house.

Order. In a prose statement the subject is placed before the predicate, usually at the beginning of the sentence.

Punctuation. The end of a statement-sentence is marked by a full-stop or period.

(2) QUESTIONS—[Interrogative Sentences]—Have you a large house? Where do you live?

Order. Questions are usually distinguished from statements by having words in a different order. The subject often comes after the predicate or part of it*; e.g. *you* comes after *have* in the first example, and in the second example *you*, the subject, comes after *do*, which is part of of the predicate *do live*. Sometimes a special interrogative word like *How*, *why*, *where*, *when*, *which*, *who*, is used at the beginning of a question.

Punctuation. At the end of a question-sentence a "Question-mark" (?) is usually written instead of a full stop. (In speech, questions are uttered with a different tone or pitch of voice.)

(3) DESIRES, including—

(a) Commands [Imperative Sentences]:
Spell that word again. (Subject, *you* understood)

(b) Entreaties:
Please pardon me.

(c) Wishes [Optative Sentences]:
God save the king. May you have good fortune.

Order. Sometimes the predicate or part of it comes before the subject: e.g. "Long *live* the king", "How gladly *would* I go!"

* After studying the Verb in Part II the pupil will see that when the predicate is formed by a compound tense of a verb, the auxiliary verb precedes the subject in a question.

(*Punctuation.* An exclamation mark is sometimes, but not necessarily, used after a wish ; *e.g.*, "God save the king !")

(4) EXCLAMATIONS [Exclamatory Sentences] :

How beautiful she is ! And what strength she has !

The purpose of an exclamation is usually to express a sudden feeling.

Order. These sentences usually begin with exclamatory words like *How*, *what*, etc. (These words are also used to introduce questions.)

Punctuation. An exclamation is usually written with an exclamation mark (!) after it instead of a full stop.

EXERCISE 3

What kinds of sentences are the following ? Place the right stop at the end of each. 1. What a shame it is 2. Is your father here 3. May you never be poor 4. You must not go 5. Have you been playing 6. Do not forget 7. Let us go home 8. How weak you are

EXERCISE 4

Write out three examples each of Statements, Questions, Desires, and Exclamations, giving the correct punctuation.

CHAPTER III

THE SUBJECT-WORD OR NOUN.

§ 7. **The Subject-Word.** The complete subject of a sentence often consists of several words, but there is usually one principal word in it which is absolutely necessary, and this is called the **subject-word**. In the sentence "The reigning King of England is named George V", the complete subject is "The reigning King of England" the subject-word is "King". Without the word "King" the sentence would give no meaning; but, although the other words grouped round it tell us something more about the King, they are not absolutely necessary ; whereas we could not do without the word "King", which is a kind of head-word.

EXERCISE 5

Pick out the subject-words in the following sentences :—

1. Lazy boys will never succeed. 2. Those white cows belong to us. 3. The house by the river is ours. 5. Swimming in the river is pleasant. 6. Dishonesty never pays.

§ 8. The subject-word of a sentence is usually the name of some thing or some person or place ; that is to say, it is a "name-word". Words that are thus used to name things, persons, or places are called **nouns**.

DEFINITION.—A **noun** is a word that is used as the name of a thing, person, or place.

In the sentences above in §1 *baby*, *lions*, *boys*, *pen* are all nouns. In the sentences

Calcutta is not very far away.

Bengal is large and fertile.

Hari is not feeling well.

Mr. Brown has not come to-day.

Calcutta, *Bengal*, *Hari*, *Mr. Brown*, are all nouns. They are used to name some person or place.

EXERCISE 6

Pick out the nouns in the following sentences :—

1. Bombay is very far away. 2. Those babies are very unhealthy. 3. Home is always dear to us. 4. Cows and oxen are very useful. 5. Rama is ill to-day. 6. The Ganges is considered holy. 7. Exercise is good for us all. 8. That white house is very large.

CHAPTER IV

THE ADJECTIVE.

§ 9. We have seen that the complete subject of a sentence may contain other words besides the head-word or subject-word, which is a noun.

1. The *big* boys have been bathing.

2. The *new* chair is broken.

3. *Lazy* students will not pass the examination.

4. *That* cow is ill.
5. *Three* kings were present at the funeral.
6. The *whole* village was destroyed.

The italicised words, *big*, *new*, *lazy*, in the first three sentences tell us something more about *the boys*, *the chair*, and certain *students*. They tell us *which* or *what kind of* boys have been bathing, *which* chair has been broken, *which* or *what kind of* students will fail. In sentence 4 the word *that* points out *which* cow is ill. In sentences 5 and 6 the words *three* and *whole* tell us *how many* kings were present and *how much* of the village was destroyed.

These italicised words describe the persons or things denoted by the subject-word and so make the subject more complete. We want to know not only the name of a thing, *what* it is, but also (i) what it is like, or (ii) which of various things of the same name is meant, or (iii) how many of such things there are, or (iv) how much of the thing there is. So we require describing-words or defining-words to give us fuller and more exact knowledge of the person or thing about which the statement is made. Such words are called **adjectives**.

§ 10. Adjectives tell us what quality is possessed by some person or thing; and so adjectives are said to "qualify" nouns (or the meaning of nouns). In the sentence "Good boys will be rewarded", the noun *boys* is qualified by the adjective *good*.

In the sentence "The big boys have been bathing", we do not mean that all the boys have been bathing, but only some of them, namely, those who are big. Thus the meaning of the noun *boys* is "limited" by the adjective *big*, which tells us which of the boys are meant, *i.e.*, boys of what kind. So adjectives are also said to "limit" the meaning of nouns.

§ 11. Similarly the application of a name is "limited" (a) by such words as *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, pointing out *which* particular things out of many are referred to in the sentence, and (b) by numerals and by words like *some*, *enough*, *much*, *little*, *all*, which tell how many or how much of the things or thing we mean.

These boys may go out to play.

There is *little* water in the river now.

§ 12. DEFINITION.—An **adjective** is a word used in order to describe or distinguish or state the quantity (or number) of what is denoted by a noun.

Order. An adjective used in this way (*i.e.*, as an epithet) is usually placed before the noun which it qualifies.

§ 13. Another way of describing an adjective is that it gives information in reply to one of such questions as the following: which? of what kind? how much? how many?

Which boys have been bathing? (Answer—"the *big* boys.")

It is to be noticed that these words (*which*, etc.), which are used along with nouns at the beginning of questions are themselves adjectives.

EXERCISE 7

- (a) Pick out the adjectives in the following sentences.
(b) What words do they qualify? (c) What do they tell or what questions do they answer? (1) The express train will start soon. (2) All boys must obey their parents. (3) This old horse will soon die. (4) Clever boys like reading. (5) Three friends were travelling together. (6) Few girls can drive a motor.

EXERCISE 8

Add suitable adjectives to the nouns in the following sentences: 1. A—dog ought to be shot. 2. —boys are rarely happy. 3. —sum is not easy. 4. —boys always do well in examinations. 5. —men never become rich. 5 —men are always respected.

CHAPTER V

THE ARTICLES.

§ 14. There are certain small words, *a*, *an*, *the*, which occur very frequently before nouns or before the adjectives which precede nouns.

I have *a* bicycle, but it is *an* old one.

The use of the word *a* or *an* usually shows that the noun which it precedes names one thing of its kind, but not necessarily any one particular

or definite thing, and not one that has already been mentioned. It does not matter *which* thing of that kind.

If I say

The bicycle has been stolen

the use of the word *the* shows that I am referring to some particular or definite bicycle, which has perhaps already been mentioned, not simply to any bicycle. The same word *the* may be used with reference to two or more particular things :

The bicycles have been stolen.

In general, *a* or *an* is used only with names of things that can be counted, while *the* is used both with these and with other nouns—*e.g.*, *the water in the well*, *the lightness of air*, *the sky*,

These words are called **articles**. *The*, which refers to some definite thing or things, is called the **definite article** ; *a* or *an*, referring to no particular thing of a kind, is called the **indefinite article**.

N.B. *A* is used before a word beginning with a consonant sound ; *an* before a word beginning with a vowel sound. Words like *useful*, *European*, *united*, *etc.*, *usual*, *uniform*, are regarded as beginning with a consonant sound (=y) and are preceded by *a*.

Some words are spelt with an *h* that is not pronounced ; these begin with a vowel sound and are of course preceded by *an*—*an hour*, *an honour*, *an heir*. If the *h* is pronounced it is

preceded by *a*—*a herb, a humble man*. [Some authorities consider that *an* should be written before *h* in an unaccented syllable—*an historian* but *a history*; *an hereditary disease*, but *a heritage*.]

§ 15. It will be seen that an article is really a kind of adjective. It qualifies a noun, and indicates whether there is one thing, or whether it is some definite thing or merely any one (no matter which) of that kind of thing; but it is an adjective of a special kind, and so it is convenient to give it a separate name. Other uses of the article will be mentioned later.

EXERCISE 9

Put the correct form of the indefinite article before :—
anna, rupee, university, hundred, uproar, unit, hour, yard,
havildar, yoke, helmet, honest, heir, humble.

EXERCISE 10

Fill up the blanks in the following sentences with suitable articles : 1. I have never been in—railway train. 2. My father took—anna out of his pocket. After a minute he gave—anna to—coolie.—coolie was very pleased. 3. My father has bought—new coat.—tailor charged him ten rupees. He gave—tailor—ten rupee note. —coat was a good one. 4. My uncle gave me—umbrella. It has—yellow handle. 5. —magistrate was pleased with—honesty of—man.

CHAPTER VI

THE PREDICATE—THE VERB.

§ 16. The predicate, as we have seen, is the part of the sentence which makes the statement about something, or asks the question, etc. ; that is to say, it is the part which expresses the speaker's thought about the thing denoted by the subject of the sentence. It is the "saying" part of the sentence, just as the subject is the "naming" part.

The full or complete predicate may consist of two or more words :—

The boy *ran quickly*.

The horse *jumped across the stream easily*.

Jack and Jill *went up the hill*.

Hari *is learning his lessons*.

But, just as in the complete subject the subject-word is the most important part, so in the full predicate there is a chief part—the simple predicate—without which no sentence could be made ; *ran, jumped, went, is learning*.

There may be only one word, or two or three or four, in the simple predicate ; but it may be regarded as equivalent to one word. This very important and indeed necessary word may be called "the saying word", *i.e.*, "*the word*" or **verb** of the sentence.

§ 17. *Ran, jumped, went*—without these important 'saying words' or verbs there could be no statement. The following words simply tell us something more about the running, the jumping, the going ; the sentence would give some sort of sense without them, though not the speaker's full meaning.

In the first three cases, the verb consists of only one word and is called **simple** in form. Often the verb itself consists of a group of two or more words, like *is learning*. It is then called **compound** in form.

Hari is sleeping.

The boys *have been bathing*.

The horse *will jump*.

§ 18. DEFINITION.—A **verb** is a word by which a statement is made about some person or thing. It tells us what is done by or done to the person or thing that is denoted by the subject of its sentence, or what it is

A verb expresses (a) the doing of some action ; and the action may be a mental action :

A mother always loves her baby.

or (b) a condition or state of being ;

He is living still. He is alive.

or (c) simple being or existence :

There are animals on the island.

Order. In a statement the predicate usually comes after the subject, except in such sentences as

There was a rat in the room.

There was nothing in the box.

§ 19. In questions, desires, etc., the verb does not make a statement, but asks a question, or expresses a desire.

Has the boy come ?

Long live the king.

Go home.

The *order* of the words is different in these sentences.

In exclamations the verb may be merely understood :

What a fine horse ! (What a fine horse that is !)

Oh ! the pity of it ! (How great is the pity of it !)

In fact, while in general we may say that a verb is necessary for every sentence, we must remember that sometimes the verb may be understood or implied.

The more, the merrier. (The more there are, the merrier they will be.)

A horse, a horse ! My kingdom for a horse !
(I want a horse. I will give my kingdom,...)

Water ! water ! (Bring water.)

EXERCISE II

- (a) Pick out the verbs in the following sentences, and
(b) say whether each is simple or compound.

(1) Rama is writing a letter. (2) He writes every week to his sister. (3) Hari went to Calcutta. (4) He will return on Monday. (5) Did he go by the mail train ? (6) The cock crows every morning. (7) The boys were playing cricket. (8) The dog is barking.

CHAPTER VII

VERBS OF INCOMPLETE PREDICATION— THE COMPLEMENT.

§ 20. Some predicates, *e.g.*, those expressing the state or condition of something, contain a verb which, taken by itself, does not seem to give full or complete meaning.

He *is* alive.

He *became* stronger.

The girl *seemed* unconscious.

If we simply said *He is, he became, the girl seemed*, the meaning would not be complete and we should not have a full predicate. In order to make the predicate complete we need other words like *alive, stronger, unconscious*. Such verbs by themselves do not express action or existence or condition, and so predicate nothing, and are not “verbs of full meaning”. They are hardly more than joining words, and are called **verbs of incomplete predication**, and the added word, or group of words, is called the **complement** or the **completion of the predicate**.

NOTE 1. Such verbs, which have really little or no meaning of their own, were sometimes called *copulative*, because they joined or coupled the subject with the complement or word describing it. In these sentences the predicate contains another word as well as the verb, and it is this other word that is the important part of the predicate.

NOTE 2. Such verbs of incomplete predication as *was made* in “He *was made* happy” have been called *factitive*. This name is unnecessary. So perhaps is *copulative*.*

* The discontinuance of both terms is recommended by the Committee on Terminology.

§ 21. Most frequently, as in the examples given above, the predicate is completed by an adjective, and such an adjective is said to be used **predicatively** or to be a **predicative adjective**. The predicate may, however, be completed by a noun used predicatively :

That big man *is a thief*.

Alfred *was made king*.

King William *was called the Conqueror*.

My brother *will become a doctor*.

He *lived a hermit*.

A **predicative noun** or **predicative adjective** is a noun or adjective which is a part of a predicate-group stating *what* the person or thing named by the subject is declared to be, become, seem, or be called.

Order. A predicative noun or a predicative adjective is usually placed after the verb of incomplete predication.

N.B. Adjectives used along with nouns in the way previously described in § 9 are said to be **epithets** or **epithet adjectives** [or sometimes attributes, or used attributively].

Other examples of adjectives and nouns used predicatively are :—(a) The judge grew *angry*. You will feel *comfortable*. The accused man was found *guilty*. He looked *unhappy*. (b) The man was *a scoundrel*. Rama was appointed *captain*. Hari became *an engineer*. My cousin proved *a rival*.

EXERCISE 12

State which of the following adjectives are used predicatively and which are used as epithets :—1. The sick man soon felt better. 2. The best player will be made captain. 3. The wretched boy fell ill. 4. The eldest son was crowned king. 5. Only clever students can become doctors.

EXERCISE 13

Supply suitable complements to the following verbs of incomplete predication ; if possible a noun and an adjective to each (in separate sentences) :—1. The man seemed——. 2. The wounded man looked——. 3. Very few lawyers become——. 4. This house is——.

CHAPTER VIII

TRANSITIVE VERBS—THE OBJECT.

§ 22. In sentences like “My father *is sleeping*”, “Dogs *bark*”, “The bell *will ring*”, each of the verbs with its subject makes a complete statement. But there are many groups of words like

1. The batsman *hit*
2. The thief *stole*
3. The soldier *will kill*

where the verb does not by itself make up a complete predication, but requires some word like (1) *the ball*, (2) *my money*, (3) *his enemy*, to denote the thing that is affected by the action

expressed by the verb, *i.e.*, the thing to which the action is directed. In other words the verb requires an **object** to make the sentence complete.

DEFINITION.—The word or group of words denoting that to which the action of the verb is directed is called the **object**.

The object is most often the name of something, *i.e.*, a noun; or rather we should say that it contains a noun, for the noun may have an adjective (epithet) attached to it. But, as we shall see, it may consist of other words equivalent to a noun.

The object is said to be *governed* by the verb.

Order. The object generally follows the verb in the sentence.

EXERCISE 14

In which of the following sentences can you find an object? What is it? (1) My uncle told a story. (2) My brother did not help my sister. (3) My mother was cooking our food. (4) The patient became **very** ill. (5) I do not know Rama's brother. (6) We shall see an aeroplane. (7) I like swimming. (8) I have hurt my leg.

§ 23. When the meaning of a verb is not complete unless it has an object denoting what is affected by its action, the verb is said to be used **transitively**, because the action does not stop with the doer, but passes over to an object. When a verb does not need an object to make its meaning complete it is said to be used **intransitively**. When a verb is intransitive, only

the doer of the action is concerned—the action stops with him ; when it is transitive, there is not only a doer, but also some other person or thing affected by the action.

In sentences like

My father *is sleeping*.

Dogs *bark*.

The girls *were laughing*.

we find an intransitive use of the verb.

In sentences like

The donkey *kicked the child*.

The servant *moved the chair*.

He *opened the door*.

The heat of the sun *will melt the ice*.

the verb is used transitively, governing an object.

We should not, however, try to group verbs into two classes, saying that some are transitive and others intransitive, for many verbs are used both transitively and intransitively. For example, in the following sentences :—

That donkey *kicks*.

The baby *is kicking* on his bed.

The blind man *was moving* about the room.

The door *opened*.

The ice *will melt*.

the verb is used intransitively.

It is therefore better to say that a verb is *used* transitively or intransitively rather than that it *is* transitive or intransitive. There may be some verbs which are always intransitive, *e.g.*,

come, fall, lie, sit, rise ; and some that are always transitive, *e.g. make, raise* ; but in general all that we can say is that certain verbs are *usually* or *normally* transitive (*e. g., take*) or *normally* intransitive (*e.g., laugh, die, sleep*).

[NOTE.—An adequate definition of the object is not possible at this stage.]

EXERCISE 15

Say which of the following verbs are used transitively and which intransitively:—(1) You must buy a new book. (2) My ball fell down the stairs. (3) The crows are sitting in the tree. (4) I have lost a rupee. (5) You do not work well. (6) Perhaps you do not like work. (7) We ate fish and rice. (8) Hens lay eggs. (9) I lay on my bed. (10) I shall become a pleader.

EXERCISE 16

State the objects of the transitive verbs in the last exercise.

CHAPTER IX

ANALYSIS IN DETAIL.

§ 24. We thus find that while (i) in some sentences the predicate is simple, (ii) in others it is compound and is not complete without some other word or group of words, forming either (a) a complement or (b) an object. The complement may be either a noun or an adjective

used predicatively ; and the noun which forms the object may have an epithet adjective attached to it. The predicate group as well as the subject group may now therefore be analysed in greater detail, as below. Analysis means dividing up a sentence into its parts : the subject and its enlargement, the predicate, object, complement, etc.

GROUP-ANALYSIS.

Subject-Group	Predicate-Group
The oldest boy	was appointed captain.
Two servants	lifted the big box.

DETAILED ANALYSIS.

SUBJECT-GROUP		PREDICATE-GROUP		
		<i>Simple Predicate</i>	<i>Completion of Predicate</i>	
Subject-word	Enlargement of subject (Epithet)	Verb	Object (with Enlargement)	Complement (Predicative adj. or noun)
The boy	oldest	was appointed		captain.
Servants	two	lifted	the big box.	

EXERCISE 17

Analyse in detail :—(1) Six men were pulling the cart. (2) The wounded man appeared better. (3) Two boys will be made monitors. (4) Bengali lawyers are very clever. (5) A man-eating tiger killed several villagers.

CHAPTER X

DIRECT AND INDIRECT OBJECT.

§ 25. In such a sentence as

I gave the man an anna.

there seem to be two objects. *An anna* is clearly an object, for it denotes what I gave ; but the man is also affected by my giving. *An anna* is called the **direct object** ; *the man* is called the **indirect object**.

We may also express the same meaning in a different way :

I gave an anna *to the man*.

using for the indirect object a phrase or group of words, *to the man*. If there is any difficulty in distinguishing the indirect from the direct object it will often be helpful to do this. If one of the objects can be replaced by a phrase beginning with *to*, that is the indirect object. Similarly instead of

Bring *the gentleman* a chair

we may say

Bring a chair *for the gentleman*.

The verbs with which indirect objects are used may generally be classed as verbs of *giving*; e.g., "He *dealt me* a blow", "He *paid me* a rupee." Even in expressions like "He *owed me* three rupees and *promised me* one to-day", "He *offered the man* an orange", the idea of giving is present ; for if we owe anything, this

means that we ought to give it; if we promise anything, we say that we will give it.

Order. The indirect object usually precedes the direct object, *e. g.*, "He gave me a rupee"; but if it takes the form of a phrase, the phrase usually follows the direct object, *e. g.*, "He gave a rupee to the man", unless there are several direct objects.

§ 26. In analysis it is necessary, if there are two objects, to state which one is the indirect object. There is no harm in writing down the direct object under its full name, but it is not always necessary. An object that is not specifically called indirect will be assumed to be a direct object.

The object, whether direct or indirect, can, of course, have an adjective attached to it as an enlargement or limitation, just as the subject can.

This may be separately stated in the case of the direct object, though it is not necessary; it is not advisable in the case of the indirect object.

Analysis :—

(1) He gave the lame man a new rupee.

(2) He dealt me a cruel blow.

	Subject.	Simple predicate.	Direct object.	Enlargement of object.	Indirect object.
1	He	gave	a rupee	new	the lame man
2	He	dealt	a blow	cruel	me

EXERCISE 18

Analyse the following sentences, pointing out the direct object, its enlargement (if any), and the indirect object :—
(1) He showed me a new book. (2) A servant offered her a dirty chair. (3) The rajah has a magnificent palace. (4) The merchant sold much furniture to the rajah.

CHAPTER XI

ADVERBS.

§ 27. Examine the following sentences :—

- (1) Abdul is coming.
- (2) Abdul is coming *soon*.
- (3) Abdul is coming *quickly*.
- (4) Abdul is coming *here*.

In the first sentence we have only the bare statement that Abdul is coming ; but from the others we get to know more about his coming :—
(2) *when* he is coming, (3) *how* he is coming, (4) *where* he is coming. The information is given by a word (*soon*, *quickly*, or *here*) being added to or put along with the verb. This word makes the meaning of the verb clearer and more definite, *i.e.*, limits it or modifies it, and so enlarges our knowledge of the action expressed by the verb, just as an adjective enlarges and makes clearer the meaning of a noun. The words which are added to verbs to limit, qualify, or

modify their meaning and make it clearer are called **adverbs**.

There are more ways of working than one. A man may work *well* or *badly*, *merrily* or *sulkily*, *quickly* or *slowly*, *always* or *sometimes* or *never*. All these words are adverbs which limit, qualify, or modify the meaning of the verb *work*. They show in what way or when the man works. In other words we may say that adverbs answer the questions, How? Where? or When?

EXERCISE 19

(a) Pick out the adverbs from the following sentences ; (b) say whether they tell how, when, or where something happens ; and (c) point out what verbs they modify.

(1) Rama works hard. (2) My father is taking medicine daily. (3) The cat is lying there. (4) The time is passing quickly now. (5) This beggar always sits here. (6) An honest man works cheerfully. (7) Abdul ate his food quickly. (8) The birds are singing merrily.

§ 28. Examine these sentences :—

- (1) His answer was right.
- (2) His answer was *nearly* right.
- (3) His answer was *quite* right.
- (4) His answer was *not* right.

In the first sentence we merely have the plain statement that the answer was right. In the second and third sentences our ideas as to the being right are modified or qualified by the words *nearly* and *quite*. They tell us how far, *i.e.*, in what degree, the answer was right. Similarly

the statement in the fourth sentence is modified by the word *not*. These words too are adverbs. In these sentences they are taken along with the predicate, *was right* (which consists of a verb with an adjective used predicatively), and so differ little, if at all, from the adverbs previously discussed.

§ 29. Some adverbs, however, may be used not only with adjectives used predicatively, as here, but also with epithet adjectives, such as are attached to the subject or object.

Very heavy loads cannot be carried.
Too many cooks spoil the broth.
He stole *nearly* twenty rupees.
A *completely* dark room is necessary.

EXERCISE 20

Pick out the adverbs from the following sentences, and say what words they modify : (1) He was very angry. (2) I am rather tired. (3) The horse was almost dead. (4) This is too heavy. (5) That very small boy must be more careful. (6) Hari was nearly first in the race.

§ 30. Go *very* quickly.

In this sentence what part of speech is *quickly*? an adverb. What work does *very* do? It modifies *quickly*, telling us how quickly the person is to go. We see therefore that an adverb may also modify another adverb.

Rama ought to play *less* roughly.
Hari plays *quite* well.
You kicked the ball *too* hard.

******[The work of an adverb is sometimes done by a phrase or group of words : *e.g.*, "He jumped *over the stream*"; and this adverbial phrase as a whole may be modified by another adverb : *e.g.*, "He jumped *almost* over the stream."]

§ 31. DEFINITION.—We may now define an **adverb** more completely as a word that is added to a verb, adjective, or other adverb, or an adverbial phrase, to modify or qualify its meaning.*

Its work is to make clearer and more definite the ideas conveyed by the verb, adjective, or adverb, or by some combinations of these words.

It is often said that adverbs are words that give the answers to the questions asked by means of the words *How ? When ? Where ? Why ?*

When are you going ? (Answer : "I am going *now*.")

Where are you going ? (Answer : "I am going *there*.")

These question-asking words are themselves adverbs. They are called **interrogative adverbs**. The word *how* may also be used in a question to modify (a) an adjective, or (b) another adverb, as well as a verb.

(a) *How* big is your brother ? (Ans. "He is *very* big.")

* NOTE. It sometimes seems as if an adverb qualifies a noun: "Mr. Datta was quite a poet", "He was almost a genius". But in each case the adverb is perhaps better taken as modifying the whole predicate, which is "was a poet", "was a genius". [Similarly in "He swam *nearly* across the channel" the adverb *nearly* modifies the whole adverbial phrase "across the channel," not merely the preposition *across*.]

- How much rice do you want ?*
 (b) *How often does he come ?*
How long will he stay ?

Order. An adverb is usually placed just after the verb that it modifies, *e.g.*, "Rama is running *quickly*," but just before the adjective or other adverb that it modifies, *e.g.*, "Hari is *very* good", "*very* clever boys get prizes", "Abdul is running *rather too* slowly."

An adverb, however, is sometimes placed before the verb, *e.g.*, "He *always* reads in the evening", especially when there are two adverbs, *e.g.*, "He *always* rises *early*". Hard and fast rules cannot be given ; the pupil must observe the practice of good modern English writers and learn by experience.

When a verb is compound in form the adverb is often placed between the two parts ; *e.g.*, "He was *always* reading".

Interrogative or question-asking adverbs are placed at the beginning of the sentence.

ANALYSIS.

SUBJECT-GROUP		PREDICATE-GROUP			
Subject-word.	Enlargement of Subject.	Verb	Completion of Predicate	Object	Extension of Predicate
Boys	very clever	get		prizes	rather too slowly.
Abdul		is running			
Hari		is	very good		

EXERCISE 21

Pick out the adverbs from the following sentences, and say what words they modify, and what parts of speech those words are :—(1) The stream is flowing very swiftly. (2) I can easily climb that tree. (3) You will never pass the matriculation. (4) You must carry those things very carefully. (5) He rarely comes here now. (6) This cloth is nearly white. (7) I have already saved almost eighty rupees. (8) A very bad man is seldom happy. (9) You must read more carefully. (10) Abdul was an extremely good boy. (11) The boy recited rather too quickly. (12) The most intelligent student will receive a prize.

EXERCISE 22

Analyse sentences 1, 3, 4, 7, 8, 12 in Exercise 21.

CHAPTER XII

PRONOUNS.

§ 32. "A man fell into a pit. *The man* was hurt, and *the man* could not get out. But someone helped *the man*, and *the man* was taken away in a carriage."

The meaning of this sentence is quite clear ; but we feel that it is clumsily expressed when the noun is repeated. Therefore we put another word instead of the noun to do its work.

"*He* was hurt, and *he* could not get out. But someone helped *him*, and *he* was taken away..."

These words that are *used instead of nouns* are called **pronouns**.

§ 33. *I, me, we, us* stand for the *speaker* or speakers, (and others with him or them) ; and are called pronouns of the **first person**.

You is used of the person or persons *spoken to* ; and is called a pronoun of the **second person**.

He, him, she, her, it, they, them are pronouns used to stand for some person or thing, or persons or things, that have already been *spoken of* ; i.e., pronouns of the **third person**.

Although a pronoun only *points out without naming* a person or thing, it sometimes tells us more than a name itself would. The use of the pronoun *I* shows that the person indicated is the person who is speaking. The person's name, however, would not do this ; as in the sentence, " Hari is reading a book". There, on the other hand, we should assume that Hari is the person spoken of.

The use of *we* shows that at least one of the persons indicated is the speaker. *One* of the players in a football team, for example, might say "we have won" ; by *we* meaning himself and the others in the team with him. Again, if they all spoke together they would say *we*.

You shows that the person or persons indicated are being addressed.

[Sometimes *we* denotes the speaker and the person spoken to ; e. g., "You and I are men ; we must wait till the women and children have gone."] .

If Hari, the first person, is speaking to Rama, the second person, he says ; “I will meet you”; *I* standing for Hari, the first person, the speaker ; *you* for Rama, the second person, who is addressed. If he is speaking about a third person, Abdul, after having mentioned him once by name, as in the sentence “I had a letter from Abdul yesterday”, he would go on to say : “He will meet me to-day”; *he* standing for the name of the third person, Abdul.

Pronouns like these, which are used instead of the name (*a*) of the speaker or speakers, (*b*) of the person or persons addressed, or (*c*) of the persons or things spoken about, are called **personal pronouns**.

§ 34. A pronoun, being used instead of a noun, may be either the subject or the object of a sentence ; but different forms are used. *I, he, she, we, they* are the forms used for the subject ; *me, him, her, us, them*, are used for the object. *You* and *it* may be either subject or object.

[Pronouns may also be used predicatively, just as nouns are ; *e.g.*, “I did not see the thief. Are you *he* ?” ; “Who is there ? It is *I*.”]

§ 35. Amongst other pronouns are :—

(*a*) *this, that, these, those*, pointing out *which* of certain things previously mentioned is or are meant. (**Demonstrative Pronouns**). These words may be used, as we have seen, along with nouns, *i.e.*, as adjectives ; *e.g.*, “This book is good.”

But they are also used without nouns as in the sentences :—

You must do *this*.

That is an aeroplane.

Dogs, cats, squirrels—*these* were always welcome.

I have brought a bicycle and a pony.

Do you want *this* or *that* ?

When one of them is thus used instead of a noun, it is a pronoun.

(b) *Who, whom, which, what*, used at the beginning of questions to refer to the unknown person or things of whom or of which the question is asked—**Interrogative Pronouns**.

(1) *Who* is that man ?

(2) *What* shall I do ?

(3) *Which* of them will you have ?

The answer to these questions will often be given by means of a pronoun, "*He* is a Pathan", "*You* must do *this*", "*I* will have *this*".

N.B. *Which* used *along with* a noun ("which book") and not instead of a noun (as above, No. 3) is an adjective.

§ 36. DEFINITION.—**Pronouns** are words which refer to or indicate things (or persons) without naming them. They are commonly used instead of nouns.

Their chief use is to prevent the needless repetition of nouns.

EXERCISE 23

(a) Pick out the pronouns from the following sentences ; (b) state the person of the personal pronouns ; and (c) give an answer to the questions asked. (1) You are not a clever boy. (2) She is very ill. (3) I do not like him. (4) The power of the pen is greater than that of the sword. (5) What is oxygen ? (6) That boy is a good player. (7) I saw those men yesterday. I knew them at once. (8) Who are they ?

EXERCISE 24

Fill with suitable pronouns the blanks in the following sentences :—(1)——am sorry ; please forgive——. (2)——are innocent ; do not punish——. (3) I saw—— ; ——was not learning his lessons. (4)——shall——send ? Shall——send Abdul ?

EXERCISE 25

Analyse (a) sentences 1, 2, 3, 6, in Exercise 23 ; (b) sentences 5 and 8.

SUPPLEMENTARY EXERCISE.

A boy, Rama, speaking to his teacher, says :—"I could not do my lessons. Hari helped *me*. *He* is my brother." The teacher replies :—"You must learn your lessons well. *He* cannot help *you* every day. Show *me* your exercise. *I* will correct *it*." What persons or things are denoted by *I*, *me*, *you*, *he*, *it* ?

CHAPTER XIII

INTERJECTIONS.

§ 37. In some sentences there are found words which do not form part of either the subject or the predicate, but seem to stand by themselves as exclamations.

Alas ! they are all dead.

Oh ! that hurts me.

Hurrah ! we have won the match.

What ! has he not returned ?

These words, which are used to express feelings, usually sudden or intense, such as sorrow, pain, joy, surprise, or merely to attract attention, are called **interjections**.

Punctuation. An interjection is usually followed by an exclamation mark (!).

CHAPTER XIV

PHRASES.

A. Adjectival Phrases.

- § 38. The house *by the river* is empty.
The legs *of the chairs* are broken.
The road *to the town* is muddy.
The man *from Bombay* has gone.
A boy *with a fair face* took my umbrella.

In each of these sentences the words printed in italics seem to go closely together and form one group ; and when we ask what work in the sentence this group or combination of words does, we see that it does the work that is often done by a single word, namely, an adjective. The last sentence means very much the same as

A *fair* boy took my umbrella.

The group of words *with a fair face* does the same kind of work as the single word *fair*, which is an adjective qualifying the noun *boy*. It tells us *which* boy is meant. Its work is adjectival.

DEFINITION.—A group of words which go closely together in this way and in combination do the work that is often done by one word is called a **phrase** if the group contains no subject and predicate of its own.

N.B. A phrase is only a part of a sentence; it is not a sentence in itself, and cannot stand

alone. Sometimes a phrase seems to stand by itself as the answer to a question ; *e.g.*, "Where is Rama ?" Answer : "In the house." But along with the phrase we understand some words from the question, *e.g.*, "He is"; so that the full reply would be, "(He is) in the house."

§ 39. If the phrase is equivalent to an adjective, *i. e.*, does the work of an adjective in the sentence, it is called an **adjectival phrase**.

With a fair face is a phrase or group of words which does the work of an adjective, describing the *boy*, and it is therefore an adjectival phrase. The phrase *by the river* tells us *which* house is empty ; and similarly the phrases *of the chairs*, *to the town*, qualify the nouns *legs* and *road*. All these are adjectival phrases.

In the sentences given above the adjectival phrases qualify the subject-word or noun, and form part of the complete subject ; but adjectival phrases may equally well qualify the object :—

Do you know *the boy with the fair face* ?

They have repaired *the road to the town*.

B. Adverbial Phrases.

§ 40. I have been swimming *in the river*.

This train starts *in a few minutes*.

It is going *to Calcutta*.

We shall climb *up the hill*.

I stayed there *for many weeks*.

From these sentences we see that a phrase may do the work of an adverb, modifying a verb.

Such a phrase is an **adverbial phrase**. The phrase *in the river* tells us where the action of swimming took place; the phrase *in a few minutes* tell us when the action of starting will take place. These phrases answer the questions, "*Where* have you been swimming?", "*When* will the train start?", which are asked by means of interrogative adverbs.

An adverbial phrase like an adverb, may modify an adjective (especially when used predicatively) :

Quinine is good *for fever*.

He looks very tired *round the eyes*.

I am anxious *about my brother*.

or an adverb (used as extension of the predicate) :

He recited well *on the whole*.

The words modified in these sentences are *good, tired, anxious, well*. (or *is good*, etc.)

ANALYSIS.

Subject word	Enlargement of subject	Simple predicate	Complement	Object	Enlargement of object	Extension of Predicate
Train	this	starts				in a few minutes
The house	by the river	is	empty			
A boy	with a fair face	took		umbrella	my	
They		have repaired		the road	to the town	

EXERCISE 26

Write out, in separate lists, the adjectival and adverbial phrases in the following sentences, and state what words they qualify or modify : 1. The coolie was sitting in the garden. 2. The man in the shop had no change in his pocket. 3. Rama is a boy of great ability. 4. A man with one arm was standing at the door. 5. There is a rat hiding behind the box. 6. It will not be there in the morning. 7. A man of great wealth does not always live in a palace. 8. The gentlemen in the carriage are going to the station. 9. The chair near the window was brought from Calcutta.

EXERCISE 27

Pick out the adjectives **and** adverbs in the following sentences and replace them by phrases :—

1. He does his work carefully. 2. He is a strong-willed man. 3. A very strong lion was standing there. 4. A very eminent statesman. 5. A barefooted beggar. 6. A one-eyed man. 7. The elephant advanced rapidly. 8. An armless man.

EXERCISE 28

Analyse sentences 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, in Exercise 26.

CHAPTER XV

PREPOSITIONS.

§ 41. In all the phrases that we have examined, whether adjectival or adverbial, we find nouns (or pronouns) ; but there are also certain other small words, *by, of, to, with, from, near, in, up, for, about, on*, used before the nouns.

What is the work done in the sentence by each of these little words standing in front of the nouns ? It connects the noun with some other word in the sentence in order to show the relation in which the person or thing named by the noun stands to some other thing or to some event. In the sentence

The pen is *on* the desk
the word *on* tells us the relation between the pen and the box. The pen is not *in* the box, or *under*, or *over*, or *near*, or *above*, or *beside* the box, but *on* the box. Similarly in the sentence

The train is going *to* Calcutta
the word *to* tells us the relation between Calcutta and the going of the train. The train is going, not *through*, or *round*, or *from* Calcutta, but *to* Calcutta.

Such words placed before nouns, or words, like pronouns, equivalent to nouns, are called **prepositions** ; and they are said to govern the nouns or noun-equivalents that follow them.

DEFINITION. A **preposition** is a word used before a noun or noun-equivalent to form an

adjectival or adverbial phrase. The preposition shows the relation between the person or thing denoted by the noun or noun-equivalent which it governs and the other thing (or attribute of a thing) or event denoted by the word which the phrase qualifies.

§ 42. *N.B.* Many words can be used either as adverbs or as prepositions (in a qualifying phrase) :—

Let us go *inside*. (adv.)

Let us go *inside* the house. (prep.)

If we are asked whether the word *inside* is an adverb or a preposition we must reply that it may be either ; we can only say which when we see what work it is doing in a sentence.

EXERCISE 29

Pick out the prepositions in Exercise 26, and say what word is governed by each.

EXERCISE 30

Make up sentences in pairs in which the following words are used (*a*) as prepositions, (*b*) as adverbs.

1. across.

2. over.

3. on.

4. down.

5. near.

6. before.

CHAPTER XVI

CONJUNCTIONS.

A. Double and multiple sentences.

§ 43. "The dog and the cat were fighting together." The subject of this sentence is "the dog *and* the cat". It consists of two nouns (denoting different things) which are joined together by the word *and*. The subject is then called **double**.

Similarly the predicate may be double, *i. e.*, may consist of two distinct verbs; or the object may consist of two distinct nouns (or pronouns).

(a) My uncle *fell ill and died*.
(double pred.)

The soldier *fought and killed* his enemy. (double pred.)

(b) He desired *death or victory*.
(double object.)

The word, *and* or *or*, which connects the two parts of the double subject, predicate, etc., is called a **conjunction**.

At present we may describe a conjunction merely as "a connecting word". A more exact definition will be given later.

§ 44. If the subject or predicate or object has more than two parts, it is called a **multiple** subject, predicate, object, etc.

A lion, a fox, and a donkey once become friends.

He must take English, Sanskrit, History, and Geography.

In these cases the conjunction *and* is placed only before the last of the series of words which are to be taken together.

Punctuation. In writing we separate the words of the series by commas. In speech we pause between them.

§ 45. "The ship sank, and all the sailors were drowned."

Here we have a pair of closely connected sentences, each of which is complete in itself. This is called a **double sentence** [Compound sentence.] Other examples are

God made the country, and man made the town

I had some money, but it is all spent.

He is rich, but he is not honest.

In a double sentence there are two quite distinct predications, as in the examples above. This is so even in

He is rich, but not honest
which is merely a shortened form of the last example given above, the subject and verb being understood.

** [We must not jump to the conclusion that every sentence which has two verbs joined by *and* is a double sentence ; for in such a sentence as

The boys were *dancing and jumping*
the two verbs refer to very much the same action and are to be taken closely together, making a double predicate in a

simple sentence, *i.e.*, a sentence which expresses a single thought. Similarly with

He *resumed and continued* his former way of life.

Most sentences with two verbs, however, are real double sentences.

Again there is a double subject in such a sentence as

Hari and Rama agreed on a trick ;

but there is only one statement. The sentence, therefore, is simple and not double. Similarly in

Two and three make five

there is only one predication. *Two and three* must be taken as a double subject in a simple sentence.

It is, perhaps, not always easy to draw a hard and fast dividing line between a double sentence and a simple sentence with a double predicate. Sometimes the presence of other words, such as adverbs, or the repetition of the subject or object, will help in the decision. Compare

1. (a) My uncle fell ill and died.

(b) My uncle fell and in a few days died.

2. (a) The soldier fought and killed his enemy

(b) The soldier fought his enemy and soon killed him.

1 (b) and 2 (b) are clearly double sentences]

DEFINITION.—A **double sentence** consists of a pair of sentences of equal rank, each of which has a distinct predicate, expressed or understood, and is grammatically independent. It is the expression of two thoughts, and contains two statements, questions, or commands. (The two parts are put together in a double sentence because they are connected in thought.)

A **multiple sentence** similarly consists of three or more sentences of equal rank, with distinct predicates, expressing three or more thoughts.

The following are examples of

(a) Double sentences :

The culprit gazed at me, but made no answer.
 He can spare the money, for he is a rich man.
 Go into the house, and do your lessons.
 This man is British, but not that one.

(In the last sentence the predicate *is British* is implied.)

(b) A multiple sentence :

Some of the boys were reading at their desks, and some were playing in the school-room ; but others were outside in the playground.

§ 46. *Punctuation*.—The two parts of a compound sentence may be separated by a comma if

- (1) the connection is close, or
- (2) the subject is the same, especially if it is not repeated, or
- (3) the sentences are short, or
- (4) the conjunction *and* is used.

e.g. "He is a rich man, and can spare the money."

A semi-colon is preferred when

- (1) the connection is not so close, or
- (2) there are different subjects, or
- (3) the sentences are long, and
- (4) the sentences express a contrast (the conjunction *but* being used), or
- (5) no conjunction is used.

e.g., "We censure the chiefs of the army for not yielding to the popular opinion ; but we cannot

censure Milton for wishing to change that opinion."

"To err is human ; to forgive, divine."

Only rough and general rules can be suggested ; but if two or three conditions are combined there can be little doubt. In the sentence

"The little cottage at the top of the hill was too small for the ploughman's family ; the stately mansion in the valley could have held with ease three or four families."

at least four of the conditions above are fulfilled, and so a semi-colon is undoubtedly right.

EXERCISE 31

Construct three double sentences, using different conjunctions, and one double sentence without a conjunction.

B. Co-ordinate sentences and co-ordinating conjunctions.

§ 47. The chief point to remember about double (and multiple) sentences is that the two (or more) parts are of equal rank. Sometimes both of two verbs are predicates to the same subject :

My uncle searched all the rooms carefully, and soon found the letter.
and sometimes each of the two sentences stands by itself, *i.e.*, is independent and does not depend on or need the other :

My uncle soon went home ; then we searched for the letter.

In either case the two parts are clearly of the same rank, and are therefore said to be **co-ordinate** sentences or co-ordinate parts of the double sentence. We may now say, therefore, that a **double sentence** is one which has two co-ordinate parts, *i.e.*, two parts of equal rank, neither being grammatically dependent on the other.

The conjunction which joins these two parts of equal rank is called a **co-ordinating conjunction**. The chief co-ordinating conjunctions are *and*, *or*, *nor*, *but*, and sometimes *for*. *And*, *or*, and *nor* may also be preceded respectively by *both*, *either*, and *neither*; *e.g.* "Either the sun moves round the earth or the earth moves round the sun."

[These pairs of words are called **correlative**.]

Similarly a **multiple sentence** has three or more co-ordinate parts.

The two parts of a double subject or of a double object are also co-ordinate, and are usually joined by co-ordinating conjunctions.

EXERCISE 32

Add a co-ordinate sentence to each of the following :--

1. We gave the beggar some food, and.....
 2. I like geography, but.....
 3. I did not come to the station, for....
 4. Either you will give us your money, or
-

CHAPTER XVII

CLAUSES.

A. Adverbial clauses.

- § 48. 1. The train *soon* came.
2. The train came *in a few minutes*.
3. The train came *after the signal had gone down*.

In sentence 1 the word *soon* tells us when the train came. It is an adverb, modifying the verb *came*. In sentence 2 the group of words *in a few minutes* does the same work; it is an adverbial phrase. In sentence 3 the same adverbial work is done by the group of words *after the signal had gone down*.

This group of words is like an adverbial phrase in one way; for it does the work of an adverb. But it differs in another way. In the phrase *in a few minutes* there is no verb, and no statement is made. But here we have both subject—*the signal*—and predicate—*had gone down*; and without the word *after* we should have an ordinary simple sentence making a statement: *the signal had gone down*. Clearly then we have a kind of sentence; but it does not stand by itself or exist in its own right; *i.e.*, it is not independent. There would be no sense in saying *after the signal had gone down* by itself. Thus it is not of the same rank as *the train came*,

a sentence which is independent and can stand by itself. In other words it depends on the main sentence ("the train came"), modifying the predicate of that sentence; and it is **subordinate** to it, *i.e.*, of lower rank.

The name **clause** is usually given to a sentence of this kind, which forms a part of a larger sentence, or is a sentence within a sentence.

DEFINITION.—A **clause** is a group of words which contains a subject and predicate of its own, and so forms a kind of sentence, but which itself forms a part of a larger sentence.

A clause which, like *after the signal had gone down* in the sentence above, does the work of an adverb, is called an **adverbial clause**.

EXERCISE 33

Write down in two lists (*a*) the adverbial phrases, (*b*) the adverbial clauses, from the following sentences, saying what words they modify:—1. After four o'clock we go out to play. 2. When the game finished we go to our homes. 3. We are going to build a house where we can have plenty of land. 4. Our house will stand near a river. 5. After the rainy season is at an end we shall start to build.

B. Adjectival clauses.

- § 49. 1. The *first* boy will get a prize.
 2. The boy *at the top* will get a prize.
 3. The boy *who stands first* will get a prize.

In the first sentence the word *first* is an adjective qualifying *boy*: it tells us *which* boy will

get a prize. In sentence 2 the same work is done by the group of words *at the top*—an adjectival phrase. In sentence 3 the same adjectival work is done by the group of words *who stands first*.

In sentence 2 the group *at the top* makes no statement; it does not contain a subject and predicate, and is only a phrase. But in sentence 3 the group *who stands first* forms a little sentence within the larger sentence. It is therefore a clause, and, as it does the work of an adjective, is called an **adjectival clause**, qualifying *the boy*.

EXERCISE 34

Write out in two lists (*a*) the adjectival phrases, (*b*) the adjectival clauses, in the following sentences, saying what word each qualifies:—(1) The book on the desk is mine. (2) The bicycle that is in the verandah is very old. (3) Mary had a lamb which loved her very much. (4) We have not chosen the site of the house. (5) I could not find the place where I left my knife. (6) The man in the new shop has paid back the money which he owes. (7) We took water from a stream that was flowing near at hand.

C. Noun-clause.

- § 50. 1. *His death* is certain.
2. *That he will die* is certain.

The second sentence means the same as the first. The subject of the first sentence is a noun; the subject of the second is a group of words with a subject (*he*) and a predicate (*will die*) of its own, *i. e.*, a clause. As it does the work of a noun it is called a **noun-clause**.

Similarly a noun-clause may be used to do the work of a noun as object of a sentence :—

I know *that he will die*.

or as complement to a verb of incomplete predication :—

This is not *what I wanted*.

or as governed by a preposition :—

I was pleased *by what I heard*.

EXERCISE 35

Pick out the subjects and objects of the following sentences :—1. I thought that you would come to-day. 2 We saw that Hari would win. 3. My father shot the dog that bit me. 4. He said that I should be very ill. 5. That you should fail is sad.

EXERCISE 36

Pick out the clauses in the following sentences and say of what kind they are :—(1) The men who were in the boat did not know when we should return (2) The house that we are building will be finished before the summer is ended. (3) Mary had a little lamb which followed her wherever she went. (4) What we ought to do is very uncertain when we know so little.

CHAPTER XVIII

CONJUNCTIONS.

(continued)

§ 51. After studying the work done by clauses of different kinds we are now in a position to understand what is meant by complex sentences and subordinate clauses, and to study another kind of conjunction which is used in them.

A. Complex sentences and subordinate clauses.

DEFINITION.—When a sentence has two or more parts, one of which is subordinate to and dependent on the other, it is called a **complex sentence**.

DEFINITION.—A **subordinate clause** is a clause that does not stand by itself, but forms a part of and is dependent on another clause or sentence, doing the work of a noun, adjective, or adverb in it.

In a complex sentence the clause that expresses the principal thought is called the **main clause** or principal clause ; and the predicate or verb of this main clause is called the **main predicate** or **principal verb**.

Subordinate clauses exist for the sake of the main clause or main predicate. They may do the work of adjectives or adverbs, qualifying some part of the main clause, or the work of a noun,

standing as the subject or object of the main predicate. The latter occurs when the principal sentence has no *separate* subject or object of its own, as in

That he will die is certain.

I know *that you love me*.

What is certain? Ans. "That he will die". Therefore, "That he will die" is the subject. If we observe that it is equivalent to "his death", we shall realise clearly that it is a noun-clause, doing the work of a noun.

What do I know? Ans. "That you love me". Therefore "that you love me" is the object, doing the work of a noun.

If that part of a complex sentence which is not subordinate is a complete sentence in itself with a *separate* subject of its own, *e.g.*,

He was sleeping when the theft occurred.

The man who stole the money *has escaped*.

it is called the main clause. "He was sleeping" and "The man has escaped" are the main clauses of these sentences.

Otherwise, *e.g.*, where the subordinate clause forms the subject as in

That he will die is certain,

where the subject is "that he will die," the other part, *e.g.*, "is certain", is called the main predicate or principal verb.

In general, whereas a subordinate clause exists for the sake of the main clause and could

not exist without a main clause, the statement in the main clause could often be made without a subordinate clause, though perhaps not as fully as we should like.

"The train came" gives some sense even if it stands alone ; but "after the signal had gone down" would give no sense if it stood alone.

B. Subordinating connectives.

(i) Subordinating conjunctions.

§ 52. In complex sentences we do not usually have two clauses merely set side by side, *e.g.*, "He was sleeping . I was working," leaving the hearer to guess at the connection ; but there is usually some sort of connecting word, showing that there is a connection between the two clauses, and also *what kind* of connection it is ; "He was sleeping *while* I was working."

Some subordinate clauses, *e.g.*, adverbial clauses and noun clauses, are introduced by conjunctions, and these are called **subordinating conjunctions**.

I know *that* he will die (noun clause)

He was sleeping *while* I was working.
(adv. clause)

The treasure was hidden *where* the sailor died. (adv. clause)

I ran away *because* he look out a pistol.
(adv. clause)

We shall look again at some of these later.

EXERCISE 37

Pick out the subordinating conjunctions from the following sentences :—(1) I shall be sorry if you do not come. (2) He is honest, although he is poor. (3) That man is rich ; but he is dishonest. (4) We have bought a new horse since you were here. (5) You will not pass unless you work hard. (6) I saw Rama as he was going to school.

(ii) Relative pronouns.

§ 53. The man *who stole the money* has vanished.

The man *whom I saw* was not the thief.

I know the man *who took the money*.

The money *which he took* was not my own.

This is the box *that he opened*.

Many adjectival clauses are introduced by the words *who* (*whom*, *whose*), *which*, or *that*. Each of these words does two kinds of work :—

(a) it joins the subordinate clause to the main clause, and is a link-word or connective ;

(b) it relates to a noun in the main clause and stands instead of it, and is therefore a pronoun.

Such a word is therefore a connecting pronoun or as it is generally called a **relative pronoun**.

The noun in the main clause (which usually precedes) to which the pronoun refers is called the **antecedent** of the pronoun.

As these words are very important a little further explanation may be given.

- (a) (i) I saw the man.
(ii) The man had stolen the money.

Each of these two sentences mentions a man. Is the man in sentence (i) the same man as in sentence (ii)? We cannot be sure from the sentences themselves. The two statements may have been connected in the mind of the speaker; but he has not shown us that there is any connection. There may have been a connection in thought, but it is not given grammatical expression.

But if we say

- (b) (i) I saw a man.
(ii) *He* had stolen the money.

it is clear that in sentence (ii) we are referring to the man of sentence (i). The use of a pronoun instead of the repeated noun has shown that the man is the same. But there are still two sentences, and it still remains to connect the two as closely in grammar as they are connected in thought.

If we say

(c) I saw the man *who* had stolen the money.
we have connected the sentences grammatically. The words "*who* had stolen the money" clearly describe "the man."

Moreover the words still form a sentence. There is a predicate—the same as in (b) (ii)—*viz.*, "had stolen..." But instead of the personal pronoun *he*, which is the subject in (b) (ii), we have as subject a pronoun of another kind, *who*,

called a **relative pronoun**. It is a pronoun which not only acts as subject in the second sentence or clause, but also serves to show the connection between the two clauses ; *i.e.*, it acts as a subordinating conjunction.

N.B. One of the tests of a relative pronoun is that a personal pronoun can be put in its place if we convert the complex sentence into two simple sentences : "I saw a dog *that* had only three legs"—"I saw a dog ; *it* had only three legs." But in "I saw *that* the dog had only three legs" we cannot put a pronoun instead of *that*, and *that* is a conjunction and not a relative.

§ 54. The relative pronoun may also be used as object in the subordinate clause :

The man *whom I saw* was not the thief.
In this case *whom* is used instead of *who*.

If the antecedent is a person, *who* is used as subject of the adjectival clause, *whom* as object.

If the antecedent is not a person, *which* or *that* are used, both as subject and as object.

N.B. (i) These words are not always relative pronouns. We have already seen that

who may also be used as an interrogative pronoun ;

which as an interrogative pronoun or interrogative adjective ;

that as (1) a demonstrative pronoun, (2) a demonstrative adjective, (3) a conjunction introducing a noun clause.

** (ii) We shall see later that a relative pronoun may also introduce a co-ordinate clause in a double sentence.

[*Punctuation*.—In this case the co-ordinate clause is placed within commas.]

(iii) A relative pronoun is sometimes understood or implied where we should expect to find it as *object* of a subordinate clause: "I know the man you mean", "this is the book I want". Understand "whom" after *man*, and "that" after *book*.

(iv) A relative—expressed or implied—may also be governed by a preposition: "That is the man *to whom* I was talking", "That is the man I was talking to."

EXERCISE 38

Pick out the relative pronouns from the following sentences; give the antecedent of each, and say whether the pronoun is subject or object in the subordinate clause. 1. I saw the boy whom I met yesterday. 2. The men are cutting up the tree which fell yesterday. 3. Where is the book that I left here? 4. A man who is honest will always prosper. 5. I know that that boy is unhappy. 6. He asked me which I wanted.

EXERCISE 39

Fill up the blanks in the following sentences with suitable relative pronouns. 1. Have you finished the sum—I set you? 2. The man—was in the shop was deaf. 3. The man—I saw in the shop was deaf. 4. Which is the motor-car—broke down yesterday?

(iii) Connective adverbs.

§ 55. Some subordinating conjunctions, like *when*, *where*, *why*, *while*, *which* join adverb-

clauses to main clauses may also be described as **connective adverbs**.

He was asleep *when* the theft took place.

Such a word does two kinds of work at once :—

- (a) it joins the subordinate clause to the main clause ;
- (b) it modifies the verb of the subordinate clause which it introduces.

In the sentence quoted we may show that the word *when* really does the work of an adverb by rewriting the complex sentence as two simple sentences and seeing what kind of word we must put instead of *when* in the subordinate clause.

(i) "He was asleep *then*. (ii) *Then* the theft took place." The substituted word *then* is an adverb modifying the predicate ; and so we may assume that *when* is an adverb.

**** § 56.** When such a word introduces an adjectival clause and is preceded by a noun which may be regarded as its antecedent it may be called a **relative adverb** :

He was lying in the place *where* he fell.¹

¹ In "He was lying *where he fell*", *where he fell* is an adverbial clause modifying *was lying*, and although some might argue that *where* = "in the place in which", "in the place" being understood, and so might be called a relative adverb, we may be content to call it merely a connective adverb or a subordinating conjunction (adverbial). The point is only of importance as showing how difficult and unnecessary it is to draw hard and fast lines of division for a living language, and how dangerous it is to dogmatise on the basis of words that are "understood".

Here "where he fell" is an adjectival clause qualifying *place*; *where* may be regarded as equivalent to *in which*, and *place* as the antecedent of *which*.

A relative adverb is similar to a relative pronoun, in that it relates to a word in the main clause, but it has the function of an adverb in the subordinate (adjectival) clause, modifying its verb just as ordinary adverbs (*then, there, etc.*) modify the verb of a simple sentence.

This is the season *when* people get fever.
(*in which*).

I do not know the reason *why* this was
done (*because of which*).

Go back to the place *whence* you have
come. (*from which*).

In each case the relative adverb can be replaced by an adverbial phrase which contains a preposition governing a relative pronoun.

[It would not be wrong for the present to regard relative adverbs as a special class of connective adverbs; but all connective adverbs are not relative adverbs. The distinction may be left to a later stage by beginners. In fact it is at this stage of a first reading not very important to distinguish even connective adverbs from subordinating conjunctions in general.]

CHAPTER XIX

ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

§ 57. Analysis, in general, means taking something to pieces so as to show of what parts it is made up. In grammar, analysis means dividing up a sentence into its various parts according to the work which they do in the sentence. A **sentence** is a collection of words chosen and put into a certain order so as to make sense. Though it may ask a question or express a desire, it most commonly makes a statement ; and for most of our purposes it is convenient to take the statement as the normal form of sentence.

The two main parts of a sentence are : —

A. The **subject-group**—the part which denotes the thing, person, place, action, or whatever the statement is made about.

B. The **predicate-group**—the part which makes the statement.

A. The new *magistrate* of our district

B. *bought* two new horses, yesterday in Calcutta.

In greater detail the parts into which sentences may be analysed are :—

1. The **subject-word** or simple subject, the principal word of the complete subject or **subject-group**, without which the subject could not be

expressed at all ; *e.g.*, *magistrate* in the sentence above. (The subject-word is most commonly, but not always, a noun or a pronoun.)

2. The term **simple predicate** is given to the most important word or small group of words in the complete predicate or predicate-group, the word or words without which there could be no statement made about the subject ; *e.g.*, *bought* is the simple predicate in the sentence above, and the italicised words are the simple predicates of those below :—

The house *will be painted* white
next week.

The horse *was being shod* in the
stable at six o'clock.

[In what may be regarded as a normal sentence the simple predicate is a verb ; but

N.B. . i. the verb may or may not have other words attached to it—an object, a complement, or an adverbial expression ;

ii. the verb may be simple or compound in form, *i.e.*, it may consist of one word or of more, *e.g.* *bought*, *will buy*, *was being shod* ;

**iii. there may be no verb, as in “up with the sail”, “away with you” “one man, one vote”, “the more, the merrier” ; but these expressions need not be studied at present.]

3. Other words may be included in the subject-group to tell us more about what is denoted by the subject-word. These are called **enlargements**

of the subject, or limitations of the subject, or **epithets**.

The *new* magistrate *of our district* bought...
The subject word *magistrate* has two enlargements, *new* and *of our district*, one being a single word (an adjective), the second being a phrase (an adjectival phrase). These enlargements make it clear *which* magistrate is meant.

SUBJECT-GROUP.	
Subject-word	Enlargement of the subject
The magistrate*	(a) new (b) of our district

4. In the complete predicate group there may be, along with the simple predicate, a word or words telling us more about the action of the predicate, *e.g.*, how or when or where it was done. Such a word or group of words (phrase) is analysed as an **extension** of the predicate.

My uncle started *yesterday by train from Calcutta*.

Subject-group—my uncle.

Predicate-group—started yesterday by train from Calcutta.

* It is, of course, possible to class the article *the* as an enlargement. It is a qualifying word, showing that I am referring to a definite magistrate, not merely any one of several. But in India, at any rate, in view of the difficulties in composition experienced in teaching the right use of the article, there are great advantages in keeping it with the noun as much as possible.

PREDICATE-GROUP	
Simple predicate	Extensions of the predicate
Started	(a) yesterday, (b) by train, (c) from Calcutta

5. Sometimes a simple predicate is sufficient by itself to give an intelligible meaning. *e.g.*, "my brother is *walking*"; although an extension, *e.g.*, "by the river", is commonly added to give further information, which may be very important. Walking is an action of the doer which need not affect any one else. But there are other actions which *must* affect another person or thing. *e.g.*, "the baby is stroking *the cat*". The verb here cannot stand alone; its meaning must be completed by the provision of an **object**, a word or words representing the other person or thing affected by the action of the doer. "Is stroking" as a simple predicate is incomplete; it requires an object such as "the cat" for its completion. (The object is usually a noun or a pronoun.)

6. The object, like the subject, may have descriptive words attached to it as an **enlargement** :

The baby is stroking the *black* cat *with the white spots*

7. In some predicates such as those expressing the state or condition of something, the simple predicate or verb is again incomplete in itself and requires a **complement** for its completion (a predicative adjective, or noun or pronoun used pre-

dicatively) : *e.g.* "He is *alive*", "He seemed *glad*", "That man is *the station master*."

Most of this has already been learnt and applied to various parts of the sentence ; but it is brought together here for the sake of recapitulation, and in order that sentences may be analysed as wholes.

It will be seen that the subject-word and simple predicate, along with an object or a complement in some sentences, provide the nucleus or skeleton of a sentence, to the various parts of which enlargements may be added.

§ 58. Practical directions for analysis :

1. Read the sentence carefully to yourself to get an idea of its meaning as a whole. (Try to form a picture of what is meant by the sentence ; this will probably help you.)

2. Divide the sentence roughly into subject-group and predicate-group.

3. Take the subject-group and separate the subject-word from its enlargement, if it has one ; *i.e.*, its qualifying words or epithets.

4. Take the predicate-group, and (*a*) pick out the simple predicate, and (*b*) see whether it has a full meaning by itself, or has an object or complement to complete its predication.

5. Separate the extensions of the predicate

6. If the object has any enlargement it may also be separated from the object-word. (It is, however, sufficient merely to underline the object-

word ; and indeed the same method would be adequate for the subject in simple sentences.)

§ 59. Examples of analysis of simple sentences.

(a) GENERAL ANALYSIS.

SUBJECT-GROUP	PREDICATE-GROUP
1. Small fishes	were swimming in the water
2. The horse	came into the garden this morning
3. A thief	stole my gold watch yesterday
4. The flowers in the garden	are growing taller every day
5. Alfred	was made king in 871

(b) DETAILED ANALYSIS.

SUBJECT-GROUP		PREDICATE-GROUP				
Subject word	Enlarge-ment	Simple predicate	Comple-ment	(Object)	Enlarge-ment of obj.	Extension of predicate
1 Fishes	small	were swimming				in the water
2 The horse		came				(a) into the garden (b) this morning
3 A thief		stole		watch	(a) my (b) gold	yesterday
4 The flowers	in the garden	are growing	taller			every day
5 Alfred		was made	king			in 871

EXERCISE 40

Analyse :—1. The French army lost many men in the battle.
 2 The aged general became very sad. 3. A British aeroplane was flying over the town in the morning. 4. Roberts was made a general at an early age.

§ 60. Analysis of double and multiple sentences.

(a) OUTLINE ANALYSIS

1. The man rose from his bed, and after a few minutes left the house.

Sentence *a*.—*The man rose from his bed*
 Connective.—*and*

Sentence *b*.—*after a few minutes left the house.*

2. Rama wept bitterly, and Hari offered money ; but the cruel man bound their arms and legs with ropes.

Sentence *a*—*Rama wept bitterly*
 Connective—*and*

Sentence *b*—*Hari offered money*
 Connective—*but*

Sentence *c*—*the cruel man...with ropes.*

(b) DETAILED ANALYSIS

	Connective.	SUBJECT		PREDICATE			
		Subject-word.	Enlargement	Simple predicate	Object-word.	Enlargement of object.	Extension of predicate.
1 (a)	and	The man		rose	the house		from his bed
(b)		(the man)		left			after a few minutes.
2 (a)	and but	Rama	cruel	wept	money arms and legs	their	bitterly
(b)		Hari		offered			
(c)		the man		bound			with ropes.

EXERCISE 41

Analyse :—1. Jack and Jill went up the hill, but Jack fell down and broke his crown. 2. Hari went out at four o'clock, but he soon returned, and then the trouble could no longer be concealed. 3. The mosquitoes bit Abdul in the night, for he had forgotten his mosquito-net, and soon afterwards he got fever.

§ 61. For the analysis of easy simple sentences the use of a set form with columns may be helpful at first. It helps the pupil to *see* that a sentence has necessarily two parts, the subject-group and the predicate-group; that there *must be* a subject and a predicate, expressed or implied, which together form the nucleus of the sentence, and that there *may or may not be* enlargements, complements, objects, and extensions.

But the set form must be used only in the very early stages; and it must *never* be used for complex sentences. Analysis is not meant to be a Chinese puzzle, but an exhibition of what is contained in the sentence. Moreover it would be very inconvenient in practice to have to fit complex sentences into such a rigid scheme of columns; and there are certain parts, *e.g.*, the indirect object and the complement, which do not appear in the majority of sentences.

It is therefore advisable after the first few lessons in analysis to divide sentences in the following way :—

Simple sentences.

1. Small fishes were swimming in the water.
Small—enlargement of the subject.

fishes—subject-word

were swimming—simple predicate

in the water—extension of the predicate (phrase).

2. A thief stole my gold watch yesterday.

A thief—subject

stole—simple predicate

my—enlargement of the object

gold— " " " "

watch—object-word

yesterday—extension of the predicate

3. The flowers in the garden are growing taller every day.

The flowers—subject-word

in the garden—enlargement of the subject (phrase).

are growing—simple predicate

taller—complement to the predicate.

every day—extension of the predicate.

4. My father gave me a watch.

My—enlargement of subject

father—subject-word

gave—simple predicate

me—indirect object.

a watch—direct object.

Double and multiple sentences.

1. The man rose from his bed and after a few minutes left the house.

(a) *The man*—subject

rose—simple predicate

from his bed—extension of the predicate (phrase).

- (b) *and*—connective (co-ordinating)
(the man or he)—subject, understood.
after a few minutes—extension of the predicate.
left—simple predicate
the house—object.

2. Rama wept bitterly, and Hari offered money ; but the cruel man bound their arms and legs with ropes.

- (a) *Rama*—subject
wept—simple predicate
bitterly—extension.
- (b) *and*—connective (co-ordinating)
Hari—subject
offered—simple predicate
money—object
- (c) *but*—connective (co-ordinating)
the man—subject-word
cruel—enlargement of the subject
bound—simple predicate
their—enlargement of the object
arms and legs—object (double)
with ropes—extension.

EXERCISE 42

Analyse in the way shown above, *i.e.*, without columns, the sentences (A) in Exercise 40, (B) in Exercise 41, and (C) 1. The wounded tiger waited till night, and then came stealthily into the village. 2 The early hours of the day are always cool, but very many people remain in bed. 3. Who has seen my pencil? 4. Kick the ball hard.

CHAPTER XX

REVIEW OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

§ 62. We have seen how a sentence may be broken up into various parts according to the work these parts do in the sentence. The parts are sometimes single words and sometimes phrases or groups of words. Words which have a certain function, *i.e.*, do a certain kind of work, in a sentence are said to belong to a certain **part of speech**. Thus it is by the analysis of a sentence that we can most easily and certainly tell to what part of speech a word belongs.

In the simplest ordinary sentences of plain everyday speech

(1) the **subject-word** is usually

(a) a **noun**, which is the name of something, or

(b) a **pronoun**, a word which stands instead of a noun, indicating something without naming it.

(2) the **enlargement** of the subject, if it is a single word, is usually an **adjective**, *i.e.*, a describing or defining word. An adjective attached to the subject-word is called an **epithet**.

(3) the simple **predicate** is a **verb**, which may be simple in form, *i.e.*, consist of a single word, *e.g.*, *ran*, or compound in form, *i.e.*, consist of two or more words, *e.g.*, *was running*, *will be running*.

(4) the **complement** to a verb of incomplete predication may be (a) an adjective (used **predicatively**), e.g., *He seemed clever*.

(b) a noun (used predicatively), e.g., *He was made captain*; (or pronoun—used predicatively—e.g., *Who is he? I am such*).

(5) The **object-word** is usually (a) a noun, or (b) a pronoun. If it is a noun it may have an enlargement, i.e., an adjective attached to it.

(6) If the verb requires an object to make its sense complete it is said to be used **transitively**, because the action denoted by the verb passes over from the doer to the person or thing denoted by the object; e.g., *My cousin hit me*.

(7) If the verb has no object it is used **intransitively**; e.g., *My father is sleeping*.

(8) The **extension** of the predicate, if it is a single word, is an **adverb**, a word which modifies the meaning of the verb. An adverb may modify a transitive or an intransitive verb; e.g.,

My cousin hit me hard.

My father is sleeping now.

An adverb may modify the predicative adjective which often forms part of a predicate; e.g.,

He became very angry.

Similarly it may also modify an adjective used as an epithet qualifying a noun; e.g.,

A very big man came up.

or it may modify another adverb; e.g.,

He spoke very angrily

(9) A group of words may be used to do the work of a simple part of speech, *e.g.*, an adjective (used as an epithet or predicatively) or an adverb. If it is not itself a sentence, with a subject and predicate, such a group is called a **phrase**. A phrase that is used like an adjective to qualify a noun, *e.g.*, as an enlargement of the subject or of the object, is an adjectival phrase. A phrase used like an adverb as extension of the predicate is an adverbial phrase.

The man *from the shop* will come *in a few minutes*.

(10) The word which stands at the beginning of a phrase and connects the noun (or its equivalent) in the phrase with some other word which the phrase qualifies (in order to show the relation between the things or actions that they name) is a **preposition**. The preposition is said to govern the noun (or pronoun) that follows it, and such a noun is called its object.

The book *on* the table is useless.

This train has come *from* Calcutta.

On, governing the table, introduces an adjectival phrase qualifying *book*, and shows the relation between the book and the table. *From*, governing the noun *Calcutta*, introduces an adverbial phrase modifying *has come*, and shows the relation between Calcutta and the coming of the train.

(11) The link-word that joins the two parts of a double subject or a double predicate or a double sentence is a **conjunction**. The two parts that

are joined in these cases are of equal rank (co-ordinate), and the conjunction is called **co-ordinating**.

(12) Instead of a phrase doing the work of a simple part of speech we may have a group of words which contains a subject and predicate of its own. Such a group is a kind of sentence ; but it cannot stand alone, and its work is to form a part of a larger (complex) sentence and do the work of one of the parts of speech in it—a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. It is called a **clause**. Because it exists, not for its own sake, but for another sentence—the main clause—and is lower in rank or importance than the main clause, it is called a **subordinate clause**. The conjunction that introduces it is a **subordinating conjunction**.

(13) A subordinate clause (adjectival), however, may be introduced by a word which does at the same time the work not only of a subordinating conjunction, but also of another part of speech, *viz.*, a pronoun. *Who*, *which*, or *that* may act not only as a link-word, but also, being a pronoun, as subject or object in a subordinate clause, standing for some noun mentioned (or implied) in the main clause. Such words are **relative pronouns**.

The man *who* stole my purse was never found.

I shall buy the horse *that* you saw.

(14) Similarly some subordinating conjunctions have a modifying function which shows that they

serve as adverbs as well as connectives ; and so they are called **connective adverbs**.

Wait for me *where* the two roads join

§ 64. To sum up, so far as we have yet seen, the following functions belong to the various parts of speech :—

(1) A **noun** is the name of some thing (person, place, thing, action, or quality). It may be used :

(a) as subject of a sentence or clause,

(b) as object „ „ „ „ „ „

(c) predicatively, as complement to a verb of incomplete predication,

(d) governed by a preposition in a phrase (adjectival or adverbial).

(2) A **pronoun** indicates without naming a thing or person. It usually stands instead of a noun, and thus saves repetition.

It may be used like a noun as in (a), (b), (c), (d) above

(3) An **adjective** is a descriptive or defining word. It may be used :—

(a) as an epithet along with a noun (used as in (a), (b), (c), or (d) above). or

(b) predicatively, as complement to a verb of incomplete predication.

Adjectives answer the questions of *what kind?* *which?* *how much?* *how many?* etc.

The **articles** are adjectives of a special kind, chiefly used to indicate **whether** there is or is not

a reference to any particular thing or things of the kind named by a noun.

(4) A **verb** is a word used for saying or asking something about some person or thing. In some cases the verb does not consist only of one word, "he *ran*", but is compound in form ; *e.g.*, "he *has started*", "may you never *be* poor".

(5) An **adverb** is a word used to modify (the meaning of) :—

- (a) a verb,
- (b) an adjective used predicatively,
- (c) an epithet,
- (d) another adverb, or an adverbial phrase ("My tooth aches *only at night*").

(6) A **preposition** is a word used before a noun in a qualifying phrase (adjectival or adverbial). It shows the relation between that noun and the word which the phrase qualifies.

(7) A **conjunction** is a link-word. It is used to join :—

(a) the two parts of a double subject, double predicate, double object, or in fact any pair of words or phrases of equal rank (co-ordinate) within a simple sentence : *e.g.*, "The doctor bandaged my leg quickly *and* skilfully"; or the last two members of a multiple subject, etc. ; "a lion, a fox, *and* a donkey became friends."

(b) the co-ordinate parts of a double or multiple sentence ;

(c) the main clause and subordinate clause of a complex sentence.

Its work is, therefore, to join two sentences, clauses, or similar parts of speech, or equivalent phrases.

(8) An **interjection** is an exclamation used to express feeling or attract attention. It really does no grammatical work within the sentence.

§ 65. *N.B.*—The same word may in a great many cases be used now as one part of speech, now as another. Until we see what kind of *work* a word does in its sentence we can rarely say what part of speech it is.

A few examples are given of words which at different times are used as different parts of speech.

- (a) *Iron* is a very common metal. (noun)
Iron vessels are very useful. (adj.)
 The dhobi *irons* my shirts badly. (verb)
- (b) I could not come *before*. (adverb)
Before the war rice was cheaper. (preposition)
 You must do your lessons *before* you go out. (conjunction)
- (c) *That* boy is my brother. (adjective)
 You have given me a horse, but *that* will not make me happy. (pronoun, demonstrative)
 I shot the dog *that* bit me, (relative pronoun)
 I hope *that* you will come. (conjunction)

§ 66. Some words do the work of two parts of speech at the same time. A relative pronoun is a conjunction as well as a pronoun; a connective adverb, such as *where* in "you must stay *where* you are", is both a conjunction and an adverb. We shall meet other examples when studying the verb.

CHAPTER XXI

PARSING—FIRST STAGE.

A. Simple Sentences.

§ 67. Parsing means giving a grammatical description of each word. In each case we can at this stage state

- (i) what part of speech it is,¹
- (ii) its relation to other words in the sentence.

(At a later stage more details will be given.)

(a) The heavy rain destroyed many flowers yesterday.

The—article, definite, qualifying *rain*,

heavy—adjective, epithet. qualifying *rain*.

rain—noun, subject to *destroyed*,

destroyed—verb, transitive, predicate to *rain*,

and governing *many flowers* as object.

many—adjective, epithet, qualifying *flowers*.

flowers—noun, object of *destroyed*.

yesterday—adverb, modifying *destroyed*.

NOTE 1. If different kinds of any part of speech have already been distinguished, e.g., transitive and intransitive verbs, adjectives used predicatively or as epithets, the kind should be stated.

(b) In the morning Hari became feverish.

In the morning—adverbial phrase, modifying *became* (*feverish*).

in—preposition, governing *morning*

the—definite article, qualifying *morning*,

morning—noun, object to the preposition *in*.

Hari—noun, subject to *became* (*feverish*).

became—verb (of incomplete predication), predicate to *Hari*.

feverish—adjective, predicative, complement to *became*.

EXERCISE 43

Parse the words and phrases in (a) the sentences in Exercise 40, (b) the following sentences:—1. Who has seen my pencil? 2. Kick the ball hard. 3. All people of wealth should be generous. 4. He failed in the examination through laziness.

B. Double sentences.

§ 68. Each of the two parts of a double sentence can usually be parsed as a simple sentence; but there will in addition usually be a conjunction joining the two sentences.

There may be in the second sentence a pronoun which we must refer to its antecedent in the first part, e.g.,

(a) The man came to the door, and I gave *him* an anna.

There may also be a subject or a predicate implied but not stated, *e.g.*,

(b) The man rose from the bed, but (*he* or *the man*) soon collapsed.

(c) Hari smiled at me, and I (*smiled*) at him.

(a) (i) The man came to the door

(ii) I gave him an anna

(i) *The*—definite article, qualifying *man*.

man—noun, subject to *came*.

came—verb, intransitive, predicate to *the man*.

to the door—adverbial phrase, modifying *came*.

to—preposition, governing *the door*.

the—definite article, qualifying *door*.

door—noun, object of *to* in the adverbial phrase.

(ii) *And*—co-ordinating conjunction, joining sentences (i) and (ii)

I—pronoun, first person, subject to *gave*.

gave—verb, transitive, predicate to *I*, governing *an anna* as object.

him—pronoun, third person, indirect object to *gave*. Its antecedent is *the man* in sentence (i).

an—indefinite article, qualifying *anna*.

anna—noun direct object to *gave*.

(b) (i) The man rose from his bed.

(ii) (He) soon collapsed.

(i) *The*—definite article, qualifying *man*.

man—noun, subject to *rose*.

rose—verb, intransitive, predicate to *the man*.

from the bed—adverbial phrase, modifying *rose*.

from—preposition, governing *the bed*.

the—definite article, qualifying *bed*.

bed—noun, object of *from* in the adverbial phrase.

(ii) *But*—co-ordinating conjunction joining sentences (i) and (ii).

(*He*—pronoun, with antecedent *the man* in sentence (i), understood as subject to *collapsed*.)

soon—adverb, modifying *collapsed*.

collapsed—verb, intransitive, predicate to *he* understood.

[Even in simple sentences there will occur phrases which at this stage (and perhaps at any stage) the pupil should not be asked to parse in detail ; *e. g.*, it will be quite sufficient to say that *at once* is an adverbial phrase, without trying to parse it in detail, which would require a knowledge that the average schoolboy can hardly be expected to have. Similarly with “He sang *every night* ; I have heard him *many a time*”. Unprofitable pedantry on matters like this has done much to discredit grammatical study.]

EXERCISE 44

Parse the words and phrases in (a) the sentences in Exercise 41 ; (b) the following sentences :—(1) The wounded tiger waited till night, and then came stealthily into the village. (2) The early hours of the day are always cool., but very many people remain in bed. (3) Rama rose early, for he was going to Calcutta by the morning train.

PART II

The Parts of Speech in Detail : their Kinds, Inflexions, and Syntactical Usages.

CHAPTER XXII

NOUNS.

§ 69. A **noun** has been defined as a word that is used as the name of something ; and under the term “things” we may include persons, places, actions, and qualities.

Things are of different kinds. Some things can be counted, such as pencils, balls, boys, cows ; and we can say *how many* of them there are. The names of these may be called “thing-nouns.” The nouns which are names of such countable things may refer to one thing or to more than one, *i.e.*, may be used in the singular or in the plural form ; *a cow, several cows, a herd of cows, two herds of cows.*

Other nouns are names of substances or materials, things that exist only in a mass ; *e.g.*, water, rice, air. We cannot count a substance, although we can say *how much* of it there is. These names may be called “mass-nouns”.

A. Kinds of noun.

§ 70. Nouns, as we can easily see, are of different kinds.

Calcutta is a name belonging to one particular town. *Hari* denotes one particular boy. (There may be more than one boy with the name *Hari*; but when we use it we are speaking of only one boy.)

Nouns like *Calcutta*, *Bengal*, *Hari*, *Mr. Jones*, *Harrison Road*, *the Ganges*, which are names of particular places or persons, are called **proper nouns**.

DEFINITION.—A **proper noun** is the name of a particular place, person, group of persons, or important event, distinguishing it from all other places, persons, etc.

Other examples of proper nouns are:—The *Coronation Durbar* was held in *Delhi*. The *French Revolution* commenced in 1789. The "*Bengali*" is a good newspaper. The *Church Missionary Society* has done much good.

§ 71. Most proper names, *e.g.*, names of persons, towns and countries, are not preceded by an article; but names of rivers, seas and oceans, mountain ranges, groups of islands, and of some districts, are preceded by the definite article:—*the Indus*, *the Ganges*, *the Pacific*, *the Caspian*, *the Himalyas*, *the Alps*, *the Andamans*, *the Philippines*, *the Punjab*, *the Deccan*, *the Highlands*, *the Crimea*.

N.B. In the spelling of a proper noun the first letter is always a capital.

EXERCISE 45

Give eight proper nouns not already mentioned, not more than two of the same kind, using them correctly in sentences.

§ 72. Most nouns are names which belong to all things of the same kind, and not to one particular thing only. The name *lion* is shared by all animals of a certain kind, *viz.*, lions; it is common to the whole class, and does not belong to one only. Similarly with *baby*, *boy*, *pen*, *king*, *chair*, *horse*. Such names, which are common to all the things (or persons, or places) of their class or kind are often called **class nouns**.

DEFINITION.—A **class noun** is a name which may be given to any one of a class of things (persons, or places) in common with other members of its class.

NOTE 1. Class nouns have often been called **common nouns**; but common nouns really include material nouns as well as class nouns, in fact all concrete nouns that are not “proper”.

NOTE 2. The same word may at one time be a class noun :—

Kings are not always happy.

Doctors are very busy men.

at another time a proper noun (or part of a proper name) ;

King George has twice visited India.

Doctor Das has become very rich.

This can be decided only by seeing the words in their sentences.

Similarly a name that is usually a proper noun may be used as if it were class noun :

There were three Haris in the class.

How many Haiderabads are there in India ?

(The meaning is ‘boys with the name Hari’, ‘towns with the name Haiderabad’.)

EXERCISE 46

Make up a few sentences containing eight class nouns, which should be underlined.

EXERCISE 47

Pick out the nouns in the following sentences and say which are proper and which are class nouns :—

1. Barrackpore is a town near Calcutta. It lies on the bank of a river. 2. Many ships sail up the Hooghly. 3. The water is very muddy. 4. Footballs are made of leather and rubber. 5. Professors are usually intelligent ; but Professor Roy is an exceptionally clever man.

§ 73. Sometimes a class noun is the name of a number or group or collection of things or persons all taken together ; *e.g.* a *class* is the name given to a number of boys who are taught together in one group ; a *gang* is a name sometimes given to a number of persons working together.

Such nouns are called **collective nouns**.

Other collective nouns are *a crowd*, *a mob*, *a jury*, *a society*, *a congregation*.

NOTE 1. There may be two or more such collections. "There are seven classes in the school", "Three gangs of coolies were working on the road."

NOTE 2. A collective noun is merely one kind of class noun.

DEFINITION.—A **collective noun** is a class noun which denotes a number of persons or things taken together as forming a group or single whole.

EXERCISE 48

What names would you give to collections of :—(1) birds, (2) ships, (3) cattle, (4) sheep, (5) robbers, (6) football players, (7) soldiers, (8) bees, (9) sailors, (10) people listening to a public speech, or to a dramatic performance.

The name that may be given to each and any individual member of the collection is an **individual noun**.

§ 74. Another class of nouns includes those which name some material or substance, such as *iron, glass, wood, water, air, rice, bread, gold, cotton, tea*. "*Gold* is a valuable metal." "*Wool* is used for making *cloth*." "Chairs are made of *wood*."

DEFINITION.—A **noun of material** is one that names a material or substance in general.

Wood is the name of the material of which certain particular things, *viz.*, chairs are made.

§ 75. A noun of material may be used *without* an article before it. If the definite article is used before it, the noun denotes some particular portion of the substance named. "The milk is sour" means that some particular milk in a certain bowl is sour, not that all milk is sour. On the other hand "sugar is sweet" means that all sugar is sweet; sweetness is a quality belonging to sugar in general.

An indefinite article is *not* used before a noun of material; but the same word may also be used as the name of some article made of that material, *i.e.*, as a class noun; *e.g.*, "I have broken *a glass*."

EXERCISE 49

Make up sentences containing six nouns of material (which should be underlined).

§ 76. Perhaps most nouns denote things that we can see, touch, smell, hear, or taste; *i.e.*, things that we can perceive with our senses. We can see *a lamp*. *A pillow* feels soft. We can smell *roses*. We can taste *salt* in our *food*. Such names are **concrete nouns**.

But there are also nouns that denote something that we can only think about; something that we cannot see, touch, hear, smell, or perceive with any of our senses. *Kindness, love, strength, faith, wisdom, joy, beauty, fear*. These are names of qualities, or ideas or states of mind, etc.; and they are called **abstract nouns**.

We feel that a stone is hard, that glass is hard, that iron is hard; and from these feelings we form (or abstract, *i.e.*, draw out) the idea of the quality that they all possess in common, *viz.*, *hardness*.

DEFINITION.—An **abstract noun** is the name of some quality, state of mind, condition, or action.

§ 77. The definite article is *not* used before abstract nouns which name a certain quality in general, *e.g.*, "*Poverty* is unpleasant"; but it is used when the noun refers to that quality as restricted to some definite person or thing, *e.g.*, "*The poverty* of that man is pitiable", *i.e.*, to a particular example of the general quality. Compare also "*Kindness* is a virtue." "*The kindness* of my friend is wonderful." "*Beauty* appeals to all." "*The beauty* of flowers means nothing to him."

§ 78. *N.B.*—(i) The same word may be used sometimes as a concrete noun, sometimes as an abstract noun.

(a) *Beauty* is a gift from Heaven. (abstract)
Miss Edna May was *a* famous *beauty*.
(concrete—"a beautiful woman".)

(b) In the Physics course we study the properties of *light*, sound, and heat.
(abstract)

I saw *a light* in the house. (concrete)

The articles may, of course, be used before such concrete nouns.

** (ii) Again we sometimes use an abstract noun instead of a concrete noun ; e.g., "All the youth and beauty of the town could be seen in the hall" meaning "All the young and beautiful people" ; "Let not Ambition mock their useful toil", i.e., "ambitious people". But this is not a normal use of words : we are using figures of speech, which are common only in poetry and oratory.

** [We shall meet with another kind of noun when we study the verb. This is the verbal noun, a noun formed from a word normally used as a verb. It is in general the name of an action, but means the same as an abstract noun ; e.g., "*To work* is profitable : but *playing* is more pleasant". This sentence means the same as "*Labour* is profitable, etc". where *labour* is an abstract noun.]

EXERCISE 50

Say which nouns are concrete and which abstract in the following sentences :—1. Wisdom is more valuable than beauty. 2. Knowledge may be gained both from books and from experience. 3. What is the weight of this bag of rice ? 4. Put the weights on the scales and we will weigh it. 5. Mercy should be combined with justice. 6. He was a Justice of the Peace for many years ; his brother was the Chief Justice of the Calcutta High Court. 7. The mountain

is a fine sight, but people with poor sight cannot see it well.
8. Amongst the nobility are men with great nobility of character.

EXERCISE 51

Write out four sentences containing abstract nouns other than those mentioned above.

* EXERCISE 52

Write out sentences to show that *authority, speech, sound, conquest, study, and character* may be used either as abstract or as concrete nouns.

Review of the classes of nouns.

§ 79. Nouns like *a boy, a ship, a cow, a soldier*, are names that can be given to any one thing of a certain class of things or beings which can be distinguished from other classes of things or beings. They are therefore called **class nouns**. The examples just given are, as the use of the indefinite article shows—*a ship, ships, a cow, cows, a soldier, soldiers*—names that can be given to one or several or many individuals of a class, and they are called **individual** class nouns. But a class-noun, as we have seen may also be the name of a collection of individual things or beings, or to several such collections—*a fleet, two fleets; a herd, several herds; a regiment, three regiments*—such nouns being **collective** nouns.

§ 80. We see then that both collective and individual nouns are class-nouns. Now class-nouns and material nouns have often been put together and called common nouns as distinguished from **proper nouns**. The latter are not applic-

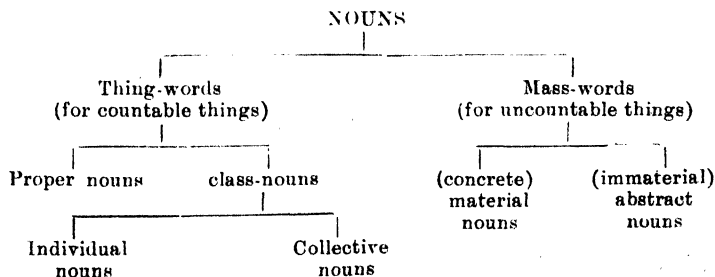
able to any and every individual in a given class, but only to particular individuals in a class as distinguished from others in that same class.

But class-nouns differ from material nouns in an important respect. Class-nouns are names given to things *that can be counted*—cows, herds, soldiers, regiments—and may therefore be called “**thing-words**”. We can say whether the things that they represent are *few* or *many*.

§ 81. On the other hand a **material noun** is a name given to the whole mass of something which exists in the world, *gold, air, water, wool*; something which has no exact shape or limit. Material nouns can therefore be called “**mass-words**.” They represent something which, by its own nature, *cannot be counted*. We can only say whether there is *much* or *little* of that thing.

Mass-nouns evidently include also names of things that are **immaterial**; *i.e.*, names of qualities, etc., which we call **abstract nouns**.

§ 82. The classification of nouns therefore will be :—



DEFINITIONS.—**Thing-nouns** are names of things that can be counted, things that exist separately from others of the same kind, so that we can say that there is one or that there are more than one (few or many).

The name may be applicable to only one particular member of a class (a **proper noun**) or to each and every member of that class (a **class-noun**, whether individual or collective).

A **mass-noun** is the name given to something that exists in a mass, whether substance or quality; something which we cannot count, although we may say that there is much or little. The name is applicable to all of that substance or quality that exists in the universe or to any indefinite part of it.

A mass-noun may be the name of something concrete or material that can be perceived by the senses (a **material noun**—the name of a substance), or of something immaterial that can only be conceived as an idea in the mind (an **abstract noun**—the name of a quality, condition, etc.).

EXERCISE 53

Of the nouns in the following sentences, which are "thing-nouns" and which are "mass-nouns"? 1. Bracelets are made of gold. 2. There is no water in the pot. 3. Rupees are made of silver; but an anna is a nickel coin. 4. Nature is full of beauty. 5. There is air all round the world. 6. Fruit is good for health. 7. There are 16 platoons in a battalion. 8. Glass is very brittle. I broke a glass yesterday.

B. Inflexion and Syntax—Number.**(i) *The meaning of Inflexion.***

- § 83. 1. (a) The cat has sharp claws.
(b) The *cats have* sharp claws.
2. (a) That dog bites.
(b) *Those dogs bite.*
3. (a) I hear a noise.
(b) I *heard* a noise.
4. (a) He hit the boy.
(b) The man hit *him*.

If we look at the first pair of sentences we shall see that two words, *cats* and *have* do not have the same form in the second sentence as they have in the first. What is the reason for this change of form? The reason is that while in the first sentence (1, a) we are speaking of one cat, in the second (1, b) we are speaking of more than one. We therefore say *cats* instead of *cat*, the sound of *s* being added. But there is a change of form in the verb as well as in the noun. The verb agrees with its subject, and so we say *have* instead of *has*, showing that our statement is about more than one cat. In both these instances the change of form expresses a change of meaning.

Similarly with the second pair of sentences. We are speaking in sentence 2 (b) not of one dog, but of more than one; so the sound of *s* is added to *dog*. The form of the demonstrative adjective which qualifies the noun is also changed, as is the form of the verb which agrees with the subject.

Now let us look at the third pair of sentences. If I say "I *heard* a noise" instead of "I *hear* a noise", this change from *hear* to *heard* means that the hearing is not taking place *now*, in the *present*, but took place sometime ago, in the *past*.

In the fourth pair we say *he* in one sentence (4*a*) and *him* in the other (4*b*). The reason is that in the one (4*a*) *he* is the subject, while in the other (4*b*) *him* is the object. Here the change of form represents a change in the relationship between the pronoun and other words in the sentence. The pronoun has a different function (*i.e.*, does a different kind of work) in the sentence, and therefore has a different form.

This change of form, which indicates a change of meaning or of relationship to other words in the sentence, is called **inflexion**, and the words are said to be **inflected**.

All words are not inflected; but inflexion, where it does occur, is a guide to function.

§ 84. By the form of a word we mean primarily its sound. Written or printed letters, which are seen by the eye, are only of importance because they stand for sounds which are heard by the ear. Even if there were no art of writing there would still be inflexions. It is very important to remember this.

Inflexion means either

(*a*) the addition of a sound (or sounds) at the end of a word: *cat*, *cats*; *dog*, *dogs*; *box*, *boxes*; *look*, *looked*; or

(b) a change of sound within the word :
foot, feet ; *know, knew* ; *hear, heard* ; or

(c) both internal change and an addition at the end of the word ; *child, children* ; *break, broken* ; *teach, taught*.

(ii) *Sounds and Letters.*

§ 85. Before we look at inflexions in detail let us attend to the pronounciation of certain important sounds. This will enable us to gain a better understanding of the inflexional system, which is found to be really very simple if we remember that it is a matter of sounds rather than of letters, of pronounciation rather than of spelling ; and thus much time will be saved.

In order that the sounds of speech may be produced, breath has to be sent out from the lungs. According to what happens to the stream of air on its way out through or past the various organs of speech, we get different sounds.

§ 86. The air-passage through the throat and mouth may be closed more or less completely or left open.

(i) If the mouth-passage is

(a) closed for a moment, or

(b) partially closed or made narrow, so that the breath is more or less checked and let out

(a) with an explosion or (b) with audible friction, **consonant** sounds are produced :—(a) e.g., the sounds denoted by *k, g, t, d, p*, and *b*, as in *kick*,

good ; *cat*, *dog* ; *pit*, *bid* ; (b) *e.g.*, the sounds of *v*, *th*, *s*, and *z*, as in *food*, *veil* ; *think*, *this* ; *sit*, *gaze*.

(ii) If the mouth passage is left open wide enough, so that the breath passes out with little or no audible friction. **vowel** sounds are produced :—*e.g.*, the sounds represented by *oo*, *i*, *a*, *u*, *e* in *moon*, *bit*, *father*, *but*, *man*, *men*.

The difference between consonants and vowels depends then on the amount of obstruction with which the breath meets from the organs of speech on its way out. *

** § 87. The differences between one vowel and another, and between one consonant and another, depend on the shape of the air-passage, which is changed as the vocal organs take different positions. The consonant sounds differ according to the place where the interference with the breath takes place. For example, when the sounds *t* and *d* are made, the point of the tongue touches the gums just above the upper teeth. The sounds represented by *th* in *thin* and *this* (*th*, *dh*) are made when the point of the tongue is placed lightly against the points of the upper teeth.

No more details need be given as to the positions of the vocal organs which produce differences of sound : but we pass on to a very important general distinction between sounds.

§ 88. As soon as the air-stream from the lungs passes out from the wind-pipe into that

* NOTE.—Grammars often tell us that "a vowel is a letter that can be uttered without the help of another letter", and that "a consonant is a letter that cannot be uttered without the help of a vowel". These definitions are grossly inaccurate and should be abolished. It may perhaps be roughly true that vowels are more frequently and easily pronounced alone than consonants ; but this will not serve as a definition. In any case it is a sound, not a letter, that is uttered. A letter is the written or printed symbol for a sound.

part of the throat that is called the larynx it has to pass through the glottis. The glottis is formed by two membranes called **vocal chords**, which stretch across the inside of the throat. If these are drawn tight and brought near together, the air-stream makes them vibrate as it passes through and **voiced** sounds are produced. If the vocal chords are kept apart so that there is no vibration, **voiceless** or unvoiced sounds are produced. (or merely breath or breathed sounds).

NOTE.—This vibration can be actually felt if you put your finger-tip on your "Adam's apple", or your flat hand on the top of your head, or your fingers against your ears, and then pronounce *ah*, or *buzz* (alternating with *hiss*).

§ 89. All vowel sounds are voiced, and about half the consonant sounds, the other half being voiceless. The sounds *t* and *d* are made in exactly the same way, *i.e.*, with the vocal organs in the same position (tip of tongue against upper gum), except that *t* is voiceless and *d* is voiced. Similarly *th* represents a voiceless sound in *thin* (*th*) and a voiced sound in *this* (*dh*); *s* is a voiceless, *z* a voiced sound. In fact most of the consonant sounds can be arranged in pairs according to the place of their formation, one sound of each pair being voiceless, the other voiced.

Voiceless—*t th* (*thin*) *k p f s sh*,

Voiced—*d dh* (*this*) *g b v z zh* (*pleasure*).

N.B. (*i*) *c* in *cat* and *coat* has the sound of *k*;

c in *city*, *face*, and *prince* = *s*.

- (ii) $ch = t + sh$; $j = d + zh$.
- (iii) the letter *g* in spelling often represents the sound of *j*, as in *engine*, *page*, *judge*.
- (iv) the *dhi* sound is always spelt as *th* as in *this*, *that*, *breathe*.
- (v) $x = k + s$ (voiceless) as in *box*, or $g + z$ (voiced) as in *exact*.
- (vi) the sound of *z* is often represented in spelling by *s*, e.g., *amuse*.

The sounds of *m*, *n*, *ng*, *l* and *r* are all voiced.

* NOTE 1.—*ng*, though represented by two letters, is really a simple sound as in *singing* ; it is not *n + g*.

** NOTE 2.—*m*, *n* and *ng* are classed together as nasals. The nasals belong to a larger group called liquids, which also contains *l* and *r*.

The name of sibilants is often given to the hissing, buzzing, and hushing sounds, *s*, *z*, *sh*, *zh*. [*N.B.* These sounds are included in the compound sounds represented by *x* (*ks* or *gz*), *ch* (*tsh*), and *j* (*dzh*).]

EXERCISE 54

Write out in two lists the letters representing voiceless consonant sounds in the following words, and those standing for voiced consonants :

- (1) carriage, (2) those, (3) things, (4) judges, (5) fix, (6) examine, (7) nice, (8) coal, (9) though, (10) measure.

** EXERCISE 55.

What letters in the words in the last exercise are not accurate or satisfactory symbols for the sounds that they denote ?

§ 90. A **syllable** is a unit of pronunciation consisting of a vowel-sound (or a diphthong) usually combined with one or more consonant-sounds, preceding or following, or both. Such a combination can be pronounced with one effort of the voice. It may by itself be a whole word, or it may be only part of a word; *i.e.*, words may consist of only one syllable (monosyllabic), or of two syllables (disyllabic), or of three (trisyllabic), or more : *on*, *dis-tant*, *con-stant-ly*.

A **diphthong** is a close combination of two vowel-sounds without any pause or break between them, so that only one syllable is formed. The *ou* sound in *sound* is a diphthong = $a + u$ (as in *father* and *cut*).

Idea has three syllables, *i-de-a*, the *e* and *a* not being uttered quite continuously; *i.e.*, the *e* sound is not run into the *a* sound in pronunciation.

N.B. The name diphthong refers to sounds, not to letters. A diphthong may be represented in spelling by a single letter. The *i* in *idea* is really a diphthong = $a + e$ (as in *father* and *see*.) The *ae* in *Caesar* is a simple vowel represented by a *digraph*, *i.e.*, a combination of two letters used as the symbol for a simple sound (*e.g.*, also *sh* in *shame*).

(iii) *Number in Nouns.*

§ 91. The *cat* has gone.
The *cats* have gone.

As we have already seen, when we say "the cat" we are speaking of only one cat. When we say "the cats" we are speaking of more than one.

When a noun denotes only one thing or person it is said to be in the **singular number**.

When it denotes more than one it is in the **plural number**.

§ 92. When a noun is in the plural number it is usually inflected to show this ; *i.e.*, there is usually some sound change in the word, so that the word has a different form when it is used in the plural number. The plural form may differ from the singular form in the following ways :—

A. the addition of a sound ; B. a change of vowel sound ; C. a combination of A and B ; or D. there may be no change of form.

A. Plurals formed by the addition of sounds. In *pronunciation* the sounds are normally *s*, *z*, or *iz* ; in *writing* these are represented by means of the letters *-s* or *-es*.

Spelling does not represent sound with uniformity or accuracy in English, but so far as writing or spelling is concerned the following are the traditional rules for the formation of the plurals by the *s*-inflection :—

1. *-es* is added to the singular form if this ends in

- (a) a letter pronounced with a sibilant sound ; *e.g.*, *s*, *z*, *sh*, *x* and *ch* (except when pronounced like *k*)—
glass, *glasses* ; *topaz*, *topazes* ; *bush*, *bushes* ; *box*, *boxes* ; *church*, *churches*.
- (b) *o* after a consonant (in the case of most common words) ; *hero*, *heroes*. See § 93 (iii).
- (c) *y* after a consonant or *qu*, *y* first being changed to *i* : *cry*, *cries* ; *obsequy*, *obsequies*.
- (d) *f* in some nouns, the *f* first being changed to *v* : *calf*, *calves* ; *leaf*, *leaves*. (See § 94 (a) for more examples and exceptions.)

2. *-s* is added to nearly all others : *e.g.*, *dog*, *dogs* ; *cliff*, *cliffs* ; *chief*, *chiefs* ; *lake*, *lakes* ; *horse*, *horses* ; *judge*, *judges*.

But it must be noted that in the latter examples the *e* which was silent in the singular form is pronounced in the plural form. This is not indicated by the spelling. Also the *s* is often pronounced like *z*. It is necessary therefore for the pupil to master the laws for the sounds of these plurals, which are much more regular than the rules for spelling.

Sound rules : (1) By the addition of the hissing sound *-s* to the singular form ; *e.g.*, *book*, *books* ; *lip*, *lips* ; *cat*, *cats* ; *proof*, *proofs* ; *month*, *months*. This takes place only when the singular form of the noun ends in such voiceless consonant sounds as *k*, *p*, *t*, *f*, *th* (as in the word *death*) ; *i.e.*, in voiceless consonants that are not sibilants. This means the addition of a consonant sound only, not of a separate syllable. The number of syllables in the word is unchanged. (These plurals are pronounced according to their spelling).

(2) By the addition of the sound *-iz* (usually spelt *-es*) at the end of words ending in the consonant sounds *-s*, *-z*, *-sh*, *-ch*, *-j*, *-x* (*i.e.*, sibilant consonants, which have a hissing, buzzing, or hushing sound). This is the addition of a syllable, *i.e.*, of a vowel sound as well as a consonant ; *e.g.*, *gas*, *gases* ; *size*, *sizes* ; *dish*, *dishes* ; *inch*, *inches* ; *bridge*, *bridges*.

N.B. (a) In dealing with this class of words, attend to the sound of the word—its pronunciation—and do not be misled by its spelling. *Face* (*c=s* ; the *-e* is not pronounced, *faces* ; *carriage* (*g=j* ; *-e* not pronounced), *carriages* ; *box* (*x=ks*) *boxes* ; *size* (*-e* not pronounced, *sizes*. (As a matter of spelling many words are written with an unpronounced *e* after the final sibilant consonant in the singular form. Singular words ending in a sibilant consonant in the written form add *-es* to make the plural).

(b) *House* changes the *s* sound to a *z* sound before adding the plural inflexion ; *house*, *houses* (pron. *haʊzɪz*), although the spelling is unchanged.

(c) A few words are spelt with a *-ch* that is sounded like *-k* (not *-tsk*) and form their plurals accordingly : *monarchs*, *stomachs*.

(3) By the addition of the buzzing sound *z* (spelt *s*) in nearly all other cases ; *viz.*, at the end of singular words ending in

(a) a vowel-sound, or

(b) one of the nasal or other liquid consonant sounds ; *viz.*, *m*, *n*, *ng* ; *l*, *r*.

(c) one of the other voiced consonant sounds that are not sibilants, *e.g.*, *b*, *d*, *g*, *v* and *dh* (written *th*, as in *lathe*), or

(a) *Sea*, *seas* ; *day*, *days* ; *bow*, *bows* ; *cry*, *cries*.

(b) *Name*, *names* ; *pen*, *pens* ; *ring*, *rings* ; *bill*, *bills* ; *pair*, *pairs*.

(c) *Tub*, *tubs* ; *lid*, *lids* ; *leg*, *legs* ; *glove*, *gloves* ; *lathe*, *lathes*.

As a matter of *sound* or *pronunciation*, it will be seen that the only nouns that form the plural by adding the sound of *s* are those which in the singular end in a voiceless consonant sound that is not a sibilant.

Those that end in a sibilant consonant sound, voiced or voiceless, add the syllable *-iz*.

Nouns ending in any other voiced sound, vowel or consonant, *i.e.*, voiced non-sibilants, add the sound of *-z*.

As a matter of *spelling*, the *z* sound, however, is always represented in writing by the letter *-s*.¹

The simple truth of this inflexional system is that we choose naturally between the voiceless hissing sound *s* and the voiced buzzing sound *z*, using the one that goes the more easily with the preceding sound. *s* is a voiceless consonant and goes naturally with other voiceless consonants (except sibilants). *z* is a voiced consonant and goes naturally with other voiced sounds (voiced consonants and vowels).

Again two buzzing sounds or a buzzing and a hissing sound cannot easily be pronounced together (*gas + z*), and so a vowel sound must be put between them to enable the inflexion to be sounded (*gases*), and another syllable is thus added.

EXERCISE 56

(a) Give the plural forms of the following nouns :— *race*, *disc*, *dish*, *glass*, *arc*, *arch*, *fox*, *cow*, *hindrance*, *grief*, *antic*.

(b) Give the singular forms of :— *latches*, *pages*, *domes*, *groves*, *bushes*, *committees*, *spaces*.

§ 93. As a matter of *spelling* it is also to be noticed that

(i) the final consonant-letter is often followed by an unnecessary letter *e* which is unpronounced or silent ; *face*, *size*, *kite*, *tide*.

¹ "Few school grammarians appear to realise that a living language is composed of sounds, not of letters ; for example, to state the rule for the plural inflexion of English nouns in terms of spelling without the use of phonetic symbols is quite misleading" (Report of the Committee on the *Teaching of English*). "It is an insult to an intelligent child to tell him that *horse* 'forms its plural by adding *s*', and to make the same remark about *cat*. The fact that *lady* 'forms its plural by changing the *-y* into *ies*' relates only to the written language, and is one for the teacher of Spelling to chronicle. All that concerns the child, who is observing the facts of a real and living language, is that *lady* forms its plural by the addition of the sound *z*." (Professor H. C. Wyld, Merton Professor in the University of Oxford.) For the convenience of those who cannot give up the old-fashioned rules for the plurals in *-s* they are, however, summarised above.

(ii) *y* (for the sound *i*) written after a consonant or *qu* in a singular noun is written as *ie* before *-s* (for the sound *z*) is added for the plural form, *e.g.*, *lady*, *ladies* (*iz*); *cry*, *cries*; *soliloquy*, *soliloquies*; but the number of syllables is unchanged and the pronunciation follows the usual rules. After a vowel-letter, *y* is unchanged in spelling before *-s* (for *z* sound) is added:—

boy, *boys*; *valley*, *valleys*. So also *eye*, *eyes*.

(iii) In the spelling of a number of well-known, fully naturalised nouns ending in *-o* following a consonant, the *z* sound of the plural inflexion is usually written as *-es*; *e.g.*, *hero*, *heroes*; *cargo*, *cargoes*; *potato*, *potatoes*; and so with *echo*, *negro*, *buffalo*, *volcano*, *mango*, *torpedo*, *mosquito*. **[*S* only is added for the plural of a few others of foreign origin, less well-known, *e.g.*, *pianos*, *porticos*, or where the final *-o* follows a vowel, *e.g.*, *curio*.]

§ 94. Special attention has to be given to certain nouns ending in *f* or *th*.

(a) Many nouns ending in *-f* change *f* to *v*, both in pronunciation and spelling before taking the plural inflexion, and so in pronunciation add the *z* sound (written *s*) and not the *s* sound; *e.g.*, *knife*, *knives*; *loaf*, *loaves*; *wife*, *wives*; *half*, *halves*; and so with *life*, *leaf*, *self*, *wolf*, *thief*, *shelf*, *sheaf*. But others add the *s* sound without any change:—*roof*, *hoof*, *proof*; *grief*, *chief*, *belief*; *cliff*, *stuff*; *dwarf*, *gulf*; *safe*, *strife*. *Scarf* and *wharf* have both forms. For

staff, which has two plurals (*staff* and *staves*) with different meanings, see § 97.

(b) A few nouns ending in *-th* (voiceless as in *mouth*) change this in pronunciation to the voiced sound of *dh* (as in *these*), and so in pronunciation add the voiced *z* sound (spelt *s*) for the plural instead of the voiceless *s*; e.g., *mouth*, *mouths* (*maudhz*); *truth*, *truths*; and so usually or often with *path*, *bath* and *youth*. There is here a difference in pronunciation with no corresponding difference in spelling. For *cloths* and *clothes*, with different meanings, see § 98.

(4) Very few nouns still make the plural form by the addition of the old inflexion *-en*; *ox*, *oxen*; *child*, *children*. **[*Brethren*—see C below.]

§ 95. **B. By internal vowel change** :—*tooth*, *teeth*; *foot*, *feet*; *mouse*, *mice*; *goose*, *geese*; *man*, *men*; *woman*, *women* (pron. *wimin*).

**[Even these plural forms originally had inflected endings, which in time caused the vowels to change and then disappeared.]

C. By both methods :—*brother*, *brethren*. (*Brothers* is now the normal; but *brethren* was used in the Bible, and is still sometimes used of fellow members of a society, and in poetry.) [The vowel in *child* is long; that in *children* is short.]

EXERCISE 57

(a) Give the plural forms of *life*, *child*, *cloth*, *mango*, *thief*, *roof*, *negro*, *army*, *journey*, *mosquito*, *family*, *chimney*, *mouse*, *brother*, *leaf*, *proof*, *shelf*, *key*.

(b) Give the singular forms of *ponies, eyes, laces, fairies*.

§ 96. *D. Without any change of form.*

Some nouns have no separate form for the plural number. These include : (1) names of certain animals (including fish and birds) :—*c.g., deer, sheep, swine* (now rare in the singular) ; *salmon, cod, trout ; wild-fowl, water-fowl, grouse*.

In such a sentence as “There were three sheep in the field”, it is not the form of the noun that shows that it is plural, but the use of the words *were* and *three* along with it. Compare “There *was* only *one* sheep in the field.”

The names of some other wild animals and birds that are hunted are also used in the plural sometimes without any inflexion ; as in “I have been shooting *duck*”, “He has gone out after some *tiger*”, “You will find plenty of *snipe* near the river”, “I saw a herd of *buffalo*”, “A brace of *partridge*”.

(2) Names of measures (including weights and collective numerals) when used after a numeral :—*c.g.,*

(a) Collective numerals :

How many partridge have you shot? Six *brace*. (never *braces*.)

He owns fifty *head* of cattle. (never *heads*.)

I bought two *dozen* pencils and two *gross* of pen-nibs.

(But we say "There were dozens of eggs broken", "I counted them by dozens", where there is no preceding numeral.)

So with *yoke* (of oxen), and *score*

(b) Weights and measures :

He weighs twelve *stone*. His height is five *foot* ten inches. (But often *stones* and *feet*.)

The inflexion is not used in adjectival expressions like "a *ten rupee* note", "a *six-foot* rod", "a *twenty pound* shot", "a *four anna* piece", "an *eight-day* clock."

NOTE Words that are normally adjectives, but are used as nouns with the definite articles take no inflexion :—"The *good* die young", "the *brave* are always fortunate", "blessed are the *poor*".

§ 97. Some nouns use or do not use inflexions to make the plural according to the meaning :—

Horse—horses (animals)	horse (cavalry, horse-soldiers.)
Foot—feet	foot (infantry, foot-soldiers).
Sail—sails	sail (ships).
Craft—crafts (trades)	craft (boats, vessels),
Shot—shots (discharges from a gun).	shot (small pellets).

"The British attacked with two thousand horse", "Nelson set off with a fleet of 30 sail", "The men of this town work at many different crafts", "The harbour was full of small craft".

Cannon, meaning a big gun, is usually unchanged in the plural, although as a term in the game of billiards (a word of different origin) it is inflected.

These uninflected plurals are in the main used with something like a collective force. This may

be observed also in the two plurals of *fish*—*fishes* and *fish*.

§ 98. Some nouns have two inflected forms for their plural ; and these are usually distinct in meaning :

Brother—brothers	(by birth)	brethren (in the same society).
Cloth—cloths	(kinds of cloth, or pieces of cloth).	clothes (garments).
Penny—pennies	(separate coins).	pence (collectively)

Sixpence means the amount of money ; it may mean (a) one silver coin (a “sixpenny piece”) or (b) six of the copper coins called pennies. *Six pennies* can mean only (b).

For the meanings of *dies* and *dice*, *stiffs* and *staves* consult a good dictionary.

For *indexes* and *indices*, *geniuses* and *genii* see § 99 below.

* § 99. Foreign words that have not become thoroughly naturalised in English usually keep the plural forms that they had in their own language :—*radius*, *radii* ; *crisis*, *crises*. If foreign words pass into common use and become naturalised, a plural form on the English model is sometimes used, either (a) instead of the foreign form ; e.g., *dogmas* ; or (b) in addition to it ; e.g., *formulae*, *formulas* ; *banditti*, *bandits* ; *plateaux*, *plateaus*.

Sometimes where two forms of plural are in use there is a difference of meaning ; e.g., *indexes*

(lists of subjects at the ends of books), *indices* (signs in algebra); *geniuses* (persons of great mental ability), *genii* (spirits); *memorandums* (informal business or official communications), *memoranda* (notes or records).

EXERCISE 58

Write out in the plural form :—(1) The boy bought a dozen pens. (2) He saw a deer in the forest. (3) My brother shot a snipe and a water-fowl. (4) I saw a small boat on the river. (5) The rajah has a cannon in front of his palace. (6) He has two brothers at school. (7) We shot a brace of pheasant. (8) A brother of the Order of St. John.

§ 100. Some nouns have meanings that do not allow of their being used normally in the plural :—

(1) **Material nouns** (names of substances)—*gold, milk, rice, fruit.*

(2) **Abstract nouns** (names of qualities, conditions, etc.)—*ugliness, knowledge, pride, rigidity, patience.*

These names are **mass-nouns**, belonging to *all* that may exist of some substance or quality, and so clearly cannot have a plural form when used strictly and normally. But some are used in the plural when the speaker is referring to

(1) different kinds of the same substance :—*e.g.*, different *teas* are blended (*i.e.*, kinds of tea); French *wines* are better than German wines ; or

(2) particular examples of some quality, etc., *e.g.*, scientists have discovered many *truths*

(*i.e.*, instances of truth); men have many *virtues* or *vices*; the *forces* of nature cannot be resisted.*

(3) **Proper names**, which are names of particular individuals, might seem incapable of being plural unless they are group-names: *e.g.*, *the Alps*, *the United Provinces*, *the Andamans*. So also in "The Churchills are all men of ability", *i.e.*, members of the Churchill family. Usually this is so, but we find "There are two *Haiderabads* in India"; *i.e.*, two towns with the name Haiderabad; "There are several *Haris* in the school", *i.e.*, boys with the name Hari; again we also find expressions like "There are few *Miltons* in the world" (*i.e.*, poets like Milton), where there is some departure from the original literal use of the noun; *i.e.*, where the word is used by a figure of speech.

(4) (a) **Nouns of multitude** are nouns which "although singular in form, have a plural meaning" (Bain):—*vermin* (=mice, rats, insects, etc.), *cattle* (cows, oxen, etc.), *poultry* (hens, ducks, etc.), *clergy* (clergymen), *infantry* (foot-soldiers). They are used indefinitely for any number of beings of a certain kind, not definitely for a particular group or collection confined to a certain number (as *e.g.*, *fleet*, *team*, *class*, *regiment*,

* NOTE.—In India *instruction* is often wrongly used in the plural when it means information or teaching. "The teacher gives *instruction* in arithmetic" is correct; but "*instructions*" would be incorrect. When the word means orders, or directions how to do some particular things, it may and must be used in the plural form, "I gave him *instructions* to go to Bombay".

which are collective nouns) ; and so they do not require the plural inflexion.

(b) A noun that is usually **collective** in the strict sense, *i.e.*, the name of a collection or group, is sometimes used in its uninflected (singular) form like a noun of multitude, the speaker thinking of the numerous individuals composing the group rather than of the group as a unit : *e.g.*, "The committee were quarreling among themselves" (the members of the committee).

N.B. Collective nouns strictly so used, as names of units, may have a plural form, since there may be several such units :—"Several committees met yesterday."

§ 101. Some nouns are regularly used only in the plural form. The meaning of most of these prevents them from being used in the singular form.

1. Some are used normally in the plural form to show that they represent things with two or more parts :—*scissors, bellows, spectacles, shears, trousers, pincers, tongs*, etc. We can enumerate these by saying "a pair of scissors", "two pairs of scissors", etc.

2. Other true plurals with no singular forms in use are :—*annals, archives, thanks, oats, dregs, victuals, vitals, measles, billiards, remains*.

3. Some plural forms are used as singulars

(a) sometimes : *gallows, tidings* ;

(b) commonly : *means* (by this means),
news (this news is bad), *innings*
(the first innings is over).

The names of sciences, *physics*, *mathematics*, *economics*, *statics*, are used regularly as singulars.

** [In some words like *alms* the *-s* is not a plural inflexion, but part of the singular form of the word. The *-s*, however, has sometimes been mistaken for a plural inflexion, so that the words have been wrongly treated as plurals, *e. g.*, *eaves*, *riches*. *Summons* is still recognised as singular and has a plural form *summonses*.]

EXERCISE 59

Are the following words singular or plural:—*salmon*, *tidings*, *physics*, *foot*, *sixpence*, *summons*, *sheep*, *stone*, *vermin*, *regiment*? Use these words in sentences of your own.

(iv) *The Use of the Articles with Nouns of different classes, singular and plural.*

§ 102. The distinction between different classes of nouns is of great importance in connection with the use of the articles.¹

(A) Thing-nouns (denoting things or persons that can be counted).

(i) With class-nouns, individual and collective, both indefinite and definite articles are used on different occasions.

The indefinite article is generally used with a class-noun if the reference is to one thing, no matter which of the kind, which has not been mentioned before or is not identified in some other way.

(a) I saw *a squirrel*, *a mongoose*, and *a bird* in the garden.

¹ A matter causing great difficulty to Indian and foreign students of English.

- (b) *A soldier* came to our village yesterday.
- (c) *A new* regiment has come to Calcutta.
- (d) *A cow* has wandered into the garden.
- (e) *A herd* of cows is coming along the road.

In the plural, nouns used in this way have no articles attached to them or are accompanied by numerals or indefinite words like *some* :¹

- (a) I saw three squirrels, two mongooses, and some birds.
- (b) Some soldiers came.....
- (c) Two new regiments have come.....
- (d) Some cows have wandered.....
- (e) Two herds of cows are coming.....

In such a sentence as "A tiger is fiercer than an elephant", the statement is made of these classes of animals as wholes. The idea is that you can take *any* one tiger at random as representing the whole class. This is the "generic use" of the indefinite article. The meaning is the same in the plural form : "Tigers are fiercer than elephants."

§ 103. The definite article is used with a class-noun if some particular thing is named which has been, or does not need to be, specified. In continuation of the sentences quoted above we might say :

- (a) *The squirrel* was climbing a tree.

¹ NOTE — The numerals two, three, etc., are definite, but the reference is not to three *particular* squirrels. Any other three squirrels might have been there. The speaker has no concern as to *which* particular regiments have come.

- (b) *The soldier* was very ill.
- (c) *The regiment* has come from Luck-
now.
- (d) *The cow* is eating the plants.
- (e) *The herd* is a very big one.

The same article is also used with the plurals of such nouns :

- (a) *The squirrels* were climbing...
- (b) *The soldiers* were very ill.
- (c) *The regiments* have come from...
- (d) *The cows* are eating the *the plants*.
- (e) *The herd* are very by ones.

N.B. The plants, in sentence (d), have not been mentioned, but we know without being told which plants they are ; viz., the plants in the garden.

There is also a "generic" use of the definite article, as in "*The tiger* is a fierce animal," the reference being to the whole class ; but the article is not used with a plural noun with this meaning.

§ 104. (ii) As in general a proper noun denotes only one person or place, there is no need to use either article with it. With certain group-names used in the plural form, however, the definite article is used : e.g., *the Alps*, *the Andamans*, *the Churchills* (see § 100, 3). Similarly with names of districts, e.g., *the Punjab*, and with names of rivers and seas ; e.g., *the (river) Ganges*, *the Caspian (sea)*, which may be regard-

ed as if a common class-noun were understood along with the name.¹

§ 105. *B*, Mass-nouns, denoting all of something—material or immaterial—that exists in the world, when strictly so used, cannot take either article with them. In talking of “water” or “kindness” in general we are referring to all or any part of that substance or quality, wherever it may be. If, however, we are referring only to some particular part of it, as existing in some definite place or person, then we use the definite article. “*The water* of the Ganges is holy”, “*the kindness* of the Queen was well known.” For more examples of the use of material and abstract nouns with and without the article see §§ 75, 77.

EXERCISE 60

Put suitable articles wherever they are needed in the following sentences:—1. fierceness of tiger is well-known. 2. gold is heavier than lead. 3. Darjeeling is town in Himalayas. 4. dog is very clever animal. 5. bird flew into house; servant shut windows, and bird could not get out. 6. water of Hughly is very muddy. 7. honesty is virtue.

(v) *The Parsing of Nouns.*

§ 106. We can now give some more information about nouns when we parse them. We can say to what class they belong—proper noun, class noun (individual or collective), material noun, abstract noun—and whether they are singular or plural. It is not necessary

¹ NOTE.—“We have an instinctive feeling that *the Thames* is short for *the river Thames*,” although in Old-English *Temes* is used without any article. (Sweet).

to state the number of abstract and material nouns, strictly so used.

- (a) "*Hari* was appointed *captain*."

Hari—proper noun, singular number, subject to *was appointed*.

Captain—class noun, individual, singular number, used predicatively as complement to the verb (of incomplete predication) *was appointed*.

- (b) "These bowls contain *milk*."

Bowls—class noun [or common noun], individual, plural number, subject to *contain*.

Milk—material noun, object to *contain*.

- (c) "He showed great *kindness*."

Kindness—abstract noun, object of *showed*.

EXERCISE 61

Parse the nouns in the following sentences:—1. A young stork once grew tired of the company of his own family and friends. 2. He became friendly with a crow. 3. His parents warned him. 4. He will lead you into trouble. 5. Another young stork joined a flock of cranes. 6. Cranes do much harm to corn; but storks catch vermin. 7. People do not like cranes.

(vi) *The Plural Forms of Compound Nouns.*

** § 107. Nouns which are made up of two or more words put together are called compound nouns. In some compound nouns the connection is so close that we hardly think of the word as a compound, and then we feel no doubt about the forming of the plural, for we simply add the plural inflexion *s* or *es* (pronounced *s*, *z*, or *iz*) to the

end of the word in the ordinary way. Words like *spoonfuls*, *cupfuls*, *boxfuls*, *basketfuls*, *handfuls*, *mouthfuls*, *bucketfuls* are examples of this. A *cupful* is the name of a quantity. You may have only one cup, though you may fill it several times. You certainly have only one mouth, though you may have on your plate ten mouthfuls of food. If you had three cups standing full of milk, then you could say *cupsful*, but the difference in form represents a difference in meaning.

In general, however, the plural inflexion is added to the most important part of the compound, the part that names the central idea—*gentlemen*, *Frenchmen*, *stepsons*, *mouse-traps*, *bookcases*, *engine-drivers*. In these and many other examples the compound is made up of a noun and an adjective or some other word used adjectivally, e.g., *bookcases* = cases for books, and the noun is the chief part of the compound.

In these examples the nouns, which are inflected, come last; but they may sometimes come first, as in *sons-in-law*, *letters patent*, *men-of-war*, *doctors of medicine*, *bachelors of science* (but *B.Sc's*, *M.B's*).

But *knight-errants*, *poet-laureates* seem to be displacing the former *knights-errant*, *poets-laureate*; and *court martials* seems about as common as *courts-martial* except in formal writing. *Governor-generals*, *attorney-generals*, *major-generals*, *lieutenant-governors* are now usual.

Some compounds are formed of an adverb added to a noun that is formed from a verb by adding *-er*. These add the inflexion to the noun-

portion, which may be first or last :—*onlookers, lookers-on, passers-by, by-standers, hangers-on, runners-up*.

A few compounds take the plural inflexion in both parts :—*men-servants, women-servants* (but *maid-servants*), *knights templars*.

**§ 108. Compounds in which the first part is a verb usually take the plural inflection at the end, the union between the two parts being very close ;—*spendthrifts, breakwaters, pickpockets, scarecrows, breakfasts ; go-betweens, breakdowns, drawbacks, lock-outs, set-backs : grown-ups, castaways, runaways*.

Other phrase-compounds are treated as if they were single words : *ne'er-do-wells, stay-at-homes, good-for-nothings, four-in-hands*.

CHAPTER XXIII

PERSONAL PRONOUNS—PERSON AND NUMBER.

Pronouns.

§ 109. We have already seen that **pronouns** are words that refer to or indicate persons or things instead of naming them, being commonly used instead of nouns. They are useful because they prevent the needless repetition of nouns, and also because they indicate certain relations between the persons or things that are referred to in the

sentence which would not be indicated by the names (see § 32-33, Chap. XII).

The difference between a noun and a pronoun may be further illustrated in this way. In general we may say that the name *monkey* always holds good of a monkey ; its meaning is more or less fixed. But the same pronoun does not always apply to the same person, and the same person may be indicated at different times by different pronouns.

I heard him saying to me . “I do not know you. Tell me who you are.”

I replied : “I will not tell you”; for I knew that he had no business to question me.

There are two persons, A and B, referred to in these sentences. A is referred to as *I, me, you, you, I, I, me* ; B as *him, I, me, you, he*. Each of the pronouns *I, me, and you*, is used to indicate now A, now B. The specific reference of a pronoun, then, depends on its context, and is constantly changing. Its meaning can only be shown by referring its to some noun—its “**antecedent**”—previously mentioned or understood. On the other hand, the choice of the pronoun makes it clear whether the person referred to is speaking, spoken to, or spoken about.

Personal Pronouns.

§ 110. Rama came home and said : “*I* saw a man on the road. *He* was very hungry ; so *I* gave *him* some fruit. *He* thanked *me*.”

His father said : “ *You* are a good boy.”

Pronouns like *I*, *he*, *him*, *me*, *you*, used instead of the names of persons, are called **personal**.

§ 111. **The persons.** (1) In the sentences “*I* am tired ; do not trouble *me* now”, the pronouns *I* and *me* represent the speaker of the sentence.

In the sentences “*We* have lost the match ; the other team beat *us* easily”, the pronouns *we* and *us* represent the speaker, or the speaker and some other person or persons associated with him.

These pronouns are said to stand for the **first person**.

(2) In the sentences “*You* must come at once ; I want *you*”, the pronoun *you* represents the person or persons to whom the sentences are spoken. It is said to represent the **second person**.

(3) In the sentences “*He* has come ; bring *him* inside”, or “*She* has come ; bring *her* inside”, or “*They* have come ; bring *them* inside”, the pronouns *he*, *him*, *she*, *her*, *they*, *them* represent the person or persons of whom the sentences are spoken.

These pronouns are said to be of the **third person** ; and along with them are reckoned *it* (with *they* and *them*) representing a thing (and things).

§ 112. The personal pronouns are valuable not only because they make it unnecessary to

repeat a noun, but also because they give some information which would not necessarily be given by the nouns. They indicate whether we are referring to (1) the *speaker* or speakers, (2) the person or persons *spoken to*, or (3) the person or persons (or thing or things) *spoken about*.

“Rama saw a man. The man was hungry so Rama gave the man some fruit. The man thanked Rama.” “Rama is a good boy.”

In these sentences it is not made clear that Rama was the speaker in the first place, or that Rama's father spoke to Rama and not to some one else. But these things are made clear if as in § 110. personal pronouns are used instead of the names.

Number.

§ 113. Since nouns have changes of form to show the difference between singular and plural it is not surprising to find that personal pronouns also have different forms when they refer to two or more persons or things.

I, me, he, him, she, her refer to only one person; *it* refers to one thing. These are all **singular**.

We, us refer to two or more persons, *them* to two or more persons or things. These are **plural**.

You may refer to one or more persons, and is either singular or plural.

§ 114. We shall find that when personal pronouns form the subjects of sentences their person

and number make corresponding differences of form in the verbs which make up their predicates. Compare "*I am ill*", "*you are ill*", "*he is ill*", "*they are ill*", "*I eat fish every day*", "*he eats fish every day*".

[When the subject is a noun it is nearly always regarded as being in the third person.]

EXERCISE 62

Pick out the personal pronouns in the following sentences and say for what person or thing each stands, and whether it is singular or plural—(1) Do not run away from the dog. He will not bite you. He likes boys and never barks at them.

(2) Teacher. "Where do you and your brother live, Hari? Do you not live with your uncle?"

Hari. "No, Sir. We do not live with him now."

Teacher. "Where does your uncle live?"

Hari. "He lives in Amherst Street, Sir."

Teacher. "What is the number of his house?"

Hari. "I cannot tell you, Sir. I have forgotten it."

CHAPTER XXIV

GENDER.

A. Gender in Personal Pronouns.

§ 115. If we examine the following sentences :—

He gave *her* a book. *He* gave *it* to *her* yesterday. *She* thanked *him*.

We shall see that some of the singular personal pronouns make some other very useful distinctions, besides those (of person and number) already noticed. Different words are used for beings of different sexes and for things that have no life.

He and *him* refer to a living person who is a male.

She and *her* refer to a living person who is a female.

It refers to a lifeless thing (the book) that has no sex.

When there is a difference in the form of a word, or a complete change of word, which indicates a difference in the sex of the person referred to or an absence of sex, the distinction is one of **gender**.

If a singular pronoun in the third person refers to

(a) a male creature, *e.g.*, a man, a boy, an ox, a cock, it is of **masculine** gender, and has a special form accordingly, *viz.*, *he*, *him* ;

(b) a female creature, *e.g.*, a woman, a girl, a cow, a hen, it is of **feminine** gender, and has a special form accordingly, *viz.*, *she*, *her* ;

(c) a thing that has no sex (including places, qualities, actions, etc.), *e.g.*, a stone, a tree, a town, gold, kindness, it is of **neuter** gender, and has a special form accordingly, *viz.*, *it*.

NOTE 1. "Neuter" is a Latin word meaning "neither". A word of neuter gender" is a word that is neither of masculine nor of feminine gender, because it refers to something that has, or is regarded as having, no sex.

No such distinctions are made in the form of the pronouns for the first and second persons, or for the plural of the third person.

Pronouns referring to creatures that are not definitely thought of as either male or female, the sex being of no importance or not known, are also treated as of neuter gender ; *e.g.*, "He was killed by *a tiger*. He fired and hit *it*, but only wounded *it*." The tiger may have been a male or a female (*a tigress*) ; it is not important to say which.

DEFINITION.—**Gender** is (in modern English) the distinction in language which corresponds to the distinction of sex in living creatures, or to the distinction between living creatures and sexless things.

N.B. Sex belongs to creatures ; gender belongs only to *words*.

§ 116. The genders of the personal pronouns are therefore

He, him—masculine.

She, her—feminine.

It—neuter (or undetermined).

I, me, we, us, you—common to masculine and feminine.

They, them—common to masculine, feminine, and neuter.

[It is well to avoid the term "*common gender*", for it is sometimes objected that strictly there cannot be a common gender any more than these can be a common sex. Some words, however, are common to two or all genders.]

When some creature is not definitely thought of as either male or female, the sex being unknown or of no importance, the neuter pronoun *it* is sometimes used ; e.g., of a baby or an animal. Masculine or feminine forms of the pronoun are, however, preferred if the sex is known.

Distinctions of gender are marked only in the forms of the third personal pronoun. Such distinctions in pronouns of the first and second persons would be of little value since the sex of the speaker or person spoken to is generally known.

** [Sometimes sexless things are spoken of as if they were imagined to have life and sex, and in poetry or in the language of special classes of men masculine forms of pronouns are sometimes used for the sun and the wind, feminine forms for a ship, a motor-car, an engine (by sailors, motorists, engineers), the moon, a country, ("England is as strong as she ever was"), nature ('if we love nature we shall find her kind and beautiful').]

These differences in form according to gender among the pronouns of the 3rd person singular are very valuable because they help us to see what is the antecedent of the pronoun more clearly than we should do if there were no such differences. After the statement "My brother and my sister were in the room", it is much clearer to say "He was beating her" than to say "One was beating the other."

** [It would perhaps be better for the language if there were similar differences of form in the plural.

"The men were eating potatoes. *They* were all black." There is nothing in the grammatical form of the pronoun *they* to show us whether it refers to the men or the potatoes.]

* EXERCISE 63

Put the correct forms of personal pronouns in the gaps in the following sentences :—(1) My mother is ill ; the doctor has come to see—. (2) —says that—has influenza. (3) —has a very high temperature. (4) —is 106 degrees. (5) We are not allowed to go in to see—. (6) —will have to remain in bed for a week. (7) I saw a black cat this morning. —was in the garden. (8) We have had our mare for four years. —has just had a foal.

B. Gender in nouns.

- § 117. (1) The *tiger* is dead ; but the *tigress* is still alive.
 (2) She will certainly defend her *cubs* in her lair.
 (3) We must reload our *rifles*, and get on the *elephants*.
 (4) The *ladies* will get up first ; then the *gentlemen*.

Of the nouns in the sentence above we know that *tiger* and *gentlemen* denote male beings, and that *tigress* and *ladies* denote females. In a sense, therefore, we can say that the nouns *tiger* and *gentlemen* are masculine in gender ; *tigress* and *ladies*, feminine.

Gentlemen and *ladies* are entirely different words, like *boy* and *girl*, *brother* and *sister*, *king* and *queen*, *man* and *woman*, and some others. But we can see that the word *tigress* is really *tiger* with another syllable, *-ess*, added to it. Similarly *lioness*, *princess*, *goddess*, *baroness*, *manageress* are formed from the nouns *lion*, *prince*, *god*,

baron, manager, to denote the females corresponding to these males.

Here the feminine form is made from the masculine form by adding a **suffix**, *-ess*, just as we make a plural form from a singular noun by adding the inflection *-s*.

§ 118. The syllable *-ess* may therefore be called a feminine suffix. It is the only living feminine suffix in the language.

A vowel sound or even a whole syllable is dropped from some words before the suffix is added; e.g.,

(a) *actor, actress; hunter, huntress; tiger, tigress; proprietor, proprietress; negro, negress;*

(b) *governor, governess*¹; *abbot, abbess; emperor, empress*; and there are sometimes other changes of sound (and spelling);

(c) *master, mistress; duke, duchess; marquis, marchioness.*

** An Old English feminine suffix *-en* survives in *vixen*, the feminine form of *fox*. (The *f* was pronounced *v* in the south of England.)

A Greek feminine form is kept in the word *heroine*.

**[Certain Latin feminines survive in law-terms, e.g., *testator, testatrix*.]

Where the distinction is of importance, sex is sometimes denoted by prefixing some distinguishing word to words which may denote either

¹ *Governess* is the feminine form of the noun *governor*: but it means a lady who teaches children in a private family, not the wife of a governor.

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sex, so forming a compound : *e.g.*, *man-servant*, *maid-servant* ; *he goat*, *she goat*. (Compare also *doctor*, *lady-doctor* ; *bride-groom*, *bride*.) Otherwise we use the words *male* and *female* adjectivally : *e.g.*, *a female donkey*, *a male elephant*.

§ 119. Words, like *cub* and *elephant*, which may denote either a male or a female, or (in the plural form) both are sometimes said to be common to both genders. Compare also *donkey*, *camel*, *wolf*, *servant*, *attendant*, *inhabitant*, *liar*, *fool*, *neighbour*, *stranger*.

Words, like *lair* and *rifle*, which denote things without sex are said to be of neuter gender ; but neuter words are not distinguished by any differences of grammatical form, so that such a term is of no practical importance.

[Pronouns may just as well be said to refer to males, or females, or sexless things, as be explained as standing instead of nouns of masculine or feminine or neuter gender.]

** It will be seen that English does not have a system of gender like that which is common in many other languages, where various nouns are said to be of different genders regardless of their meanings. The gender of English nouns depends on their meanings (*i.e.*, upon the sex of the beings denoted), and is called *natural* gender ; the other kind of gender is called *grammatical*.

§ 120. In parsing, the gender of singular third personal pronouns should be mentioned. The gender of nouns that represent individual living creatures (or things imagined as such) may also be mentioned, particularly when the noun has a separate inflexional form for the feminine gender. It is not necessary to state the gender of other nouns.

NOTE 1. The Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology recommended "that in English Grammar the distinctions of gender be not emphasized."

- (1) My *brother* shot the *leopard* and killed *it*.

Brother—class noun, individual, singular, masculine, subject of *shot* and *killed*.

leopard—class noun, individual, singular, either gender (or gender undetermined) object *shot*.

it—personal pronoun, 3rd person, singular, gender undetermined, antecedent *leopard*, object of *killed*.

- (2) The *tigress* will defend her *cubs* as long as *she* has *strength*.

tigress—class noun, individual, sing., feminine, subject of *will defend*.

cubs—class noun, individual, plural, either gender, object of *will defend*.

she—personal pronoun, sing., feminine, antecedent *tigress*, subject of *has*.

strength—abstract noun, object of *has*.

- (3) *I* saw a *flock* of *sheep* on the *road*. A boy was driving *it*.

I—personal pronoun, 1st person, singular, subject of *saw*.

flock—class noun, collective, singular, object of *saw*.

sheep—class noun, individual, plural, either gender, object of the preposition *of*.

road—class noun, individual, singular, object of the preposition *on*.

it—personal pronoun, 3rd person, singular, gender undetermined, agreeing

with its antecedent *flock* ; object of *was driving*.

(4) The *ship* kept on her course, but *she* did so with difficulty.

ship—class noun, individual. singular, gender here regarded as feminine, subject of *kept on*.

[It is the use of the feminine form of the pronoun, *she*, which shows that the ship is imagined as a female.]

EXERCISE 63

Parse the italicised nouns and pronouns in the following sentences :—(1) The *shikari* shot a *bear* in the *hills* yesterday. It was a very big one. He brought back the *skin* this morning, and I shall buy *it*. (2) A *child* was playing on the *road*. A *horse* nearly knocked *it* down, but a *servant* with great *courage* rescued *it*. (3) *Cows* are very useful *animals*. Our cow gives us *milk* daily. We have had *her* for a year.

CHAPTER XXV

CASES IN PRONOUNS AND NOUNS.

A. The Cases of Personal Pronouns.

§ 121. (1) Rama has gone out ; *he* is in the garden.

(2) Rama has gone out ; I saw *him* in the garden.

In these sentences *he* refers to Rama and is a pronoun. *Him* also refers to Rama and is a pronoun. Why do they differ in form? Let us see what work each does in its sentence. In sentence (1) *he* is the subject of the sentence; in sentence (2) *him* is the object of the verb.

So also in the sentences "*I* saw him in the garden; he left *me* long ago." *I* is the subject to the verb *saw*; *me* is the object of the verb *left*; yet these words refer to the same speaker.

In fact the function of these differences in form is to indicate whether the pronoun is used as subject or as object. *I, he, she, we, they* are the forms used when the pronoun is the subject of a sentence; *me, him, her, us, them*, are the forms used when the pronoun is the object of a verb.

You and *it* are used both as subject and as object.

Me, him, her, us, them (and *you* and *it*) are used for the indirect object as well as for the direct object: "He gave *me* a book"; "I offered *him* money."

§ 122. According as a pronoun has different functions, *i.e.*, does different kinds of work in the sentence and stands in different relations to other words in the sentence, it is said to have different **cases** or to be in a different **case**.

When a pronoun is the subject of a sentence it is said to be in the **nominative case**, and it has

a special form accordingly :—"I saw him ; *he* left me ; *we* were unhappy ; *they* went away."

Here *I*, *he*, *they*, *we* are in the nominative case.

When a pronoun is the direct object of a verb it is said to be in the **accusative** [or objective] **case**, and has a special form accordingly : "I saw *him* ; he left *me* ; they like *us*."

Here *me*, *him*, *us*, are in the accusative case.

When a pronoun is the indirect object of a verb it is said to be in the **dative case** : "He gave *me* a book", "They offered *us* food", "I brought *her* a chair". Here *me*, *us*, *her*, are in the dative case. The forms for the dative case are the same as those for the accusative case.

**[There is some convenience and no harm in using the term "objective case" for the *forms* which are thus used for both direct and indirect objects, so long as we remember that there are two distinct functions ; and this will be its meaning if it is used in this book.]

§ 123. These personal pronouns, as we see, undergo certain changes of form according to their function in the sentence, *i.e.*, according to their case-relations. We can tell by the form of most of the personal pronouns whether they are being used as subjects or objects, *i.e.*, whether they are in the nominative or some other case. If it is in the nominative case a first or third personal pronoun will have the form *I*, *we*, *he*, *she*, or *they*. If it is in the accusative or dative case

it will have the form *me*, *us*, *him*, *her*, or *them*. *You* and *it* have the same forms for all these three cases.

Of the personal pronouns, then, we can say that **case** is a term that refers to the special form of the pronoun which shows more or less clearly its function in a sentence and its relation to some other part of the sentence.

**** NOTE 1.** *Thou* was once used for the nominative singular form of the second person and *thee* for the objective cases. *You* was confined to the objective cases in the plural, the now obsolete *ye* being used as nominative. *You*, however, is now used for all these cases, except in poetry and in prayers, where *thou* and *thee* survive.

**** NOTE 2.** The answer to such a question as "Who is there?" often takes the form "It is me" in normal colloquial English; *me* being used predicatively as subjective complement to *is*. This usage, though avoided in written English and by very careful speakers, is well established. Formal grammarians insist that *me* should be replaced by *I*, the recognised form of the nominative case, and are not willing to admit *me* as an alternative form for the nominative case in this predicative use; but "It is I" is commonly regarded as pedantic in its correctness. [The similar form, "it is him", however, is not sanctioned by the usage of educated people, though it is found in vulgar speech.]

B. The case of nouns.

§ 124. With regard to nouns, however, we do not find these differences of form indicating the difference between the nominative and objective cases. But as nouns are undoubtedly used in different ways, *viz.*, as subject and as object (direct and indirect), so they may still be said to

have different cases, though these may not be distinguished by inflexion or change of form.

(1) The *cat* ate the mouse.

(2) The dog killed the *cat*.

In sentence (1) *cat* is the subject and may be said to be in the nominative case ; in sentence (2) *cat* is the object and may be said to be in the accusative case. There is no inflexion or difference in form ; it is only the order of words that is our guide¹, apart from the general meaning of the sentence. But still there is a difference of case (*i.e.*, of case-relation) because there is a difference of function.

The relationship between *the man* and *the dog* in

The man hit the dog

is just the same as the relation between *he* and *me* in

He hit me

the man being nominative, and *the dog* accusative.

We may state the position otherwise by saying that in nouns the differences of **case-relation** are frequently not expressed by corresponding differences of **case-form** ; while in pronouns different case relations have different case-forms.

The cases of nouns, therefore, can be decided only by a careful analysis of the sentence.

¹ In prose the subject usually precedes the predicate in statements, while the object follows the verb. See also §§ 6, 22, 26.

In poetry the order is often changed, *e.g.*, "Her arms across her breast she laid."

§ 125. We shall also see that in sentences like

He is a *Bengali*.

I am your *friend*.

Hari was appointed *captain*.

the nouns (*Bengali*, *friend*, *captain*) which are used predicatively as subjective complements after intransitive verbs of incomplete predication (stating what someone is or is made, etc.) are to be regarded as in the same case as the subject *i.e.*, nominative.

N.B. These complements refer to the subject and are called **subjective complements**.

§ 126. The Headmaster appointed him *captain*.

The Council made Alfred *king*.

In these sentences we have transitive verbs with direct objects, *him* and *Alfred*, in the accusative case. But the verbs are verbs of incomplete predication, and require complements to complete their meaning. These complements are *captain* and *king*; but, as they refer to the objects, and not to the subjects they are called **objective complements**, and are in the accusative case in agreements with the direct objects *him* and *Alfred*.

Adjectives, as well as nouns, can be used predicatively in this way as objective complements; *e.g.*, "This news made him *unhappy*".

§ 127. Sometimes regarded as a special form of the nominative case and called "nominative of address" is the **vocative case**, which is used to

name the person addressed, as if to call his or her attention :

Milton, thou should'st be living at this hour.

Mighty *seaman*, this is he (who) was great by land as thou by sea.

Take, *Madam*, this poor book of song.
Comrades, leave me here a little.....

It is frequently preceded by *O* :

O God, have mercy upon us.

**[*Ye*, the old nom. pl. form of the 2nd personal pronoun was often used as a vocative in poetry as well as in the Bible :—, "*Ye mariners of England*....."]

EXERCISE 65

Using the terms nominative, accusative, dative, vocative, state the case of each italicised noun or pronoun below :—
(1) *He* would not hear *thy voice*, fair *child* ! (2) *He* called aloud : "Say, *father*, say if yet my task is done." (3) *Storks* eat *frogs* and *mice*. (4) His *parents* warned *him*. (5) A *crow* showed *him* many *tricks*. (6) *He* became a *thief*. (7) *O king*, grant *me* a *boon*. (8) *I* have not met *her* before, but *I* gave *her* a *present*.

C. Some special case-usages.

** § 128. Uses of the pronoun *it* as formal subject.

(a) Such a sentence as
It is pleasant to sit by the river
is merely another way of saying.

To sit by the river is pleasant.

The real subject is "To sit by the river" as will be clear if we ask, "What is pleasant?" No

one would answer "it" to this question. *It* is in form the subject of the sentence, and may be called the **formal subject**; or we may say that it is the **provisional subject**, standing as subject for the time being to represent the **real subject** which is to follow.

Similarly

It is known *that the earth is round*.

(What is known? Answer: That the earth is round.)

[In "*It* is hard to earn a living" *it* is the formal or provisional subject. Similarly in "I find *it* hard to earn a living", *it* may be called the formal or provisional object.]

**** (b)** Again in such sentences as

(1) *It* is cold to-day.

(2) *It* will be nice when the holidays come.

(3) *It* is very dreary now that you are away.

(4) *It* is midnight.

it is used as the **vague subject**, often being equivalent to words like 'the weather' (1), 'life' (2 and 3) 'the time' (4). It is even more vague in sentences like "*It* is raining", "*It* looks as if he will be late". This usage chiefly occurs with verbs that are used **impersonally**, *i.e.*, to say that some action is going on or some condition of things is existing.

**** (c)** Such a sentence as "It is this which has caused the trouble" is merely an emphatic way of

saying "*This* has caused the trouble"; a statement that is *really* simple being thrown into the *form* of a complex sentence. The real information is given in the apparent adjectival clause, and *it* is used as the **formal subject** of the more or less meaningless main clause, or the **provisional subject**, standing as subject for a time in anticipation, and representing the real subject which follows.]

****§ 129.** Other uses of *it* :

(a) *It* may have a whole sentence as its antecedent.

Q. Did you know that my father is dead ?

A No, I didn't know it. (*It* = "that your father was dead".)

(b) *It* may be used as **internal object** to a verb (usually intransitive) used transitively with a cognate object ;

You must fight it out (= the fight).

****§ 130.** Sometimes a noun is followed closely by a defining or descriptive phrase in which the chief word is a noun, *e.g.*, "William, the first *Norman king of England*, was called the Conqueror." "Everyone loves the present Viceroy, *Lord Reading*."

Such a defining noun is said to be in **apposition** to the other noun and is regarded as being in the same case (*e.g.*, nominative and accusative respectively in the sentences quoted above).

****§ 131.** *The sun having set*, we stopped for the night.

She being very tired, we rested for a day.

Here a noun or pronoun is used with a participle to form a phrase which is connected in meaning with the main statement (giving the reason for the action named) ; but there is no grammatical connexion, and the noun or pronoun, being regarded as free from such connexion, is said to be used absolutely and is regarded as being in the nominative case. This is the **nominative absolute** construction.

CHAPTER XXVI

THE ADJECTIVAL USE OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

THE GENITIVE CASE.

A. The Genitive of Nouns.

§ 132. There is no difference in form between the nominative and objective cases of nouns ; but in words that are commonly used as nouns there is a certain inflexion which indicates a case-relation.

The *magistrate's* house is very large.

The black *cat's* kittens are very small.

A horse's hoofs are very hard.

Dogs' tongues are smooth.

Here the consonant sound of *s* or *z* (spelt '*s*' or '*s*') or the syllable *-iz* is added to the nominative singular form just as it is for the plural inflexion of a noun.

N.B. In spelling but not in pronunciation a distinction is made by using an apostrophe point — before the *-s* in the singular form, after it in the plural.

What work is done by these words—*magistrate's*, *cat's*, *horse's*, *dogs'*? They seem to do the work of describing or defining words, qualifying nouns; *i.e.*, they have an *adjectival* function. This is true, but we can say more than this; we can say more exactly what kind of description or definition these words give. The names are commonly used as names of beings (persons or animals), *i.e.*, as nouns. What is the exact relation between the two nouns in each of the phrases? We can tell that the house belongs to the magistrate, that the kittens belong to the cat. The relation is that of possession; and the nouns that have the inflexion *-s* (or *-z* etc.) are sometimes said to be in the "possessive" case. This may be a good name for these particular examples, but there are many instances where we cannot strictly say that there is any idea of ownership:—

Rama's opponent defeated him.

The ship's course was changed at a moment's notice.

Rama does not own his opponent ; nor is the relation between moment and notice that of possession. Other examples are :—

Our *country's* foes were numerous in the seven *years'* war.

After *Mr. Baldwin's* election he took a *week's* holiday.

“The king's death”, “Christ's persecutors”, “three days' leave”, “the prisoner's trial”, “Napoleon's defeat” (the defeat inflicted on Napoleon).

It is advisable therefore to adopt another name, *viz.*, the **genitive** case.

§ 133. The genitive form of nouns, as we have seen, is made by means of certain inflexions which are *in sound* the same as those of the plural, *viz.*, -s, -z, -iz, although *in spelling* they are distinguished by the use of an apostrophe point—before the -s for the singular, after it (usually) in the plural form, *e.g.*, the *dog's* pups (singular), the *dogs'* pups (plural), in both cases pronounced *dogz*.

The following sounds are added to the nominative singular form of a noun to make the genitive case-form in the singular :

(1) -s is added to words ending in consonant sounds like *t, p, k, f, th*, (as in *blacksmith*) which are voiceless and are not sibilants : *e.g.*, *ship's*, *wife's*, *duke's*.

N.B. *Wife* and *duke* end in a consonant sound, not in a vowel sound.

(2) *-iz* (spelt *-e's* or *-'s*) is added to words ending in a sibilant consonant, *i.e.*, a consonant with a hissing, buzzing, or hushing sound, like *s, z, sh, ch, j*; *e.g.*, *horse's, James's, Keats's, judge's* (dg=j), *fox's* (x=ks), *Smiles's* (as in Smiles's "Self Help"),

N.B. (i) *horse* and *judge* end in a consonant sound, not in a vowel, (ii) *James, Keats, Burns, Smiles* are all singular forms (proper names).

(3) *-z* (spelt *-'s*) is added in all other cases; *viz.*, all words ending in non-sibilant voiced sounds:

- (a) vowel sounds: *Rama's, day's, lady's*;
- (b) liquid (including nasal) sounds: *l, r, m, n, ng*: *girl's, lion's, king's; lamb's*.
- (c) other voiced consonants that are not sibilants: *d, g, b, v*; *cub's, dog's, dove's*.

N.B. All this, so far as *spelling* is concerned, often looks like merely adding *-s*, for the nominative form often ends in a "silent" *e*, but this *-e* is sounded in the genitive form.

The genitive case-form is made in very much the same way as the plural is made from the singular; but *f* is not changed to *v*, and it is followed by the true *-s* inflection (pronounced *s*, not *z*). *Wife*—gen. sing., *wife's*—plural, *wives*.

§ 134. The genitive plural form is the same as the nominative plural in nouns where the latter is formed by the addition of *-s, -z, or -iz* (spelt

-s); except that in spelling, an apostrophe point is put *after* instead of before the -s. *Ladies*; *ladies' gowns*; *boys*; *boys' coats*; *wives*, *wives' duties*.

In almost all these words the genitive singular, the nominative plural, and the genitive plural are pronounced in the same way, the only difference being the presence and position of the apostrophe point in the spelling.

[*Exceptions are words ending in *f*: e.g., *thief*—gen. sing., *thief's*—nom. pl. *thieves*.

**If the following word begins with a sibilant sound the genitive inflexion of a word of two or more syllables is often omitted, although an apostrophe is retained in the spelling:—*for conscience' sake*, *for Jesus' sake*; but *for James's sake*.

Greek names of which the last syllable is *-es* (pron. *eez*) also take no inflexion, even if the next word does not begin with a sibilant:—*Socrates' death*, *Aristides' sons*, *Diogenes' tub*.

[It is easy to avoid difficulties in deciding on the right form of genitive by substituting the genitive case-phrase of which something will be said later (§§ 143-4): "the death of Socrates", "the tub of Diogenes".]

§ 135. When the nominative plural is formed by vowel change, e.g., *man*, *men*, the genitive plural is formed by adding *-s* or *-z* or *-iz* to the nominative plural form, according to the practice

for the singular (in spelling always *-s* preceded by an apostrophe).

Singular—*goose, goose's ; man, man's ;*

Plural—*geese, geese's ; men, men's.*

Similarly *child's, children's ; ox's, oxen's.*

In these cases, therefore, the genitive plural is not pronounced or spelt in the same way as the genitive singular or as the nominative plural. There is a difference in sound as well as in spelling. Similarly the genitive singular is not pronounced or spelt like the nominative plural.

§ 136. Compound words and even phrase-compounds often form a genitive by adding the inflexion to the last word of the compound, as if it were one unit (even where the plural is formed by inflecting the chief word) ; e.g., “*my father-in-law's money*”, “*the Prince of Wales's journey*”, “*Edward the Fourth's title*”, “*the man in the street's idea*”.

We may speak of *fathers-in-law* in the plural, but we do *not* speak of “*my father's-in-law money*”.

§ 137. The genitive of the noun, as we have said, is used as an adjective-equivalent. We may illustrate this by substituting adjectives thus :

The king's crown	The royal crown.
A father's love	Paternal love.
England's navy	The English navy.

Like other adjectives it may be used not only as an epithet, but also predicatively :

This book is my *brother's*.

§ 138. So far as *spelling* only is concerned the formation of genitive forms may be stated thus :

(a) The genitive singular form is made by adding -'s to the nominative singular form : *horse's*, *fox's*, *goose's*.

(b) The genitive plural form is usually made (i) by adding an apostrophe (') to the nominative plural form when this ends in -s or -es ; *horses'*, *foxes'* ; (ii) by adding 's to the nominative plural form when this is formed in some other way : *men's*, *geese's*, *oxen's*.

EXERCISE 66

(a) Give the genitive singular forms of :—princess, wolf, fox, woman, thief, mouse, the Duke of York, Mr. Jones, company, Sophocles, monkey, Robert Burns, mistress, sheep, negro.

(b) Give the genitive plural forms of :—wolf, fox, woman, thief, mouse, monkey, mistress, sheep, negro, and company,

B. The Genitive case of Personal Pronouns.

i. Possessive Adjectives.

§ 139. Rama's father is alive, but *his* mother is dead.

This double sentence means just the same as
Rama's father is alive, but *Rama's*
mother is dead.

But we have seen that instead of repeating a proper name we may more conveniently substitute a pronoun, saying *he* instead of *Rama*. Something like this is what has happened here. Similarly after saying

I saw Abdul and Hassan.

it is clearly more convenient to say

Their horses have died

than to say

Abdul's and Hassan's horses have died.

Just as the genitive case of a noun is used adjectivally to indicate possession and certain other similar relations, so certain forms of the personal pronouns, which have often been regarded as examples of the genitive [possessive] case, are also used adjectivally along with nouns to indicate similar relations.

These are *my*, (*thy*), *his*, *her*, *its* ;

your

our,

their.

The use of *my* in the sentence "This is *my* book" indicates primarily that *I* am the owner or possessor of the book. These words therefore are called **possessive adjectives**.

Because they have been formed from pronouns they have also been called "pronominal adjectives"

That they may indicate other relations besides that of strict possession is shown by such sentences as

After *his* defeat in the battle *his* escape seemed hopeless.

My election gave me great pleasure.

ii. *Possessive Pronouns.*

§ 140. The adjectival words *my*, *your*, *her*, *its*, *our*, *their* are used only when followed immediately by the noun which they qualify, or by a noun preceded by an epithet, *e.g.*, "Our new teacher has come".

In the following sentences, however,

This ball is *mine*. That book is *hers*.

That house is *ours*. *Yours* is a happy life.

the words *mine*, *her*, *ours*, *yours*, stand alone. They stand respectively for "my ball", "her book", "our house", and "your life". A pronoun may, of course, stand instead of a noun-phrase just as it can stand instead of a noun; and the words

mine, (*thine*), *his*, *hers* ;
 yours,
ours, *theirs*.

used independently in this way are called **possessive pronouns**.

They are true pronouns, being not only formed from pronouns (genitives), but also used as pronouns; whereas *my*, *our*, etc., though formed from pronouns, are used as adjectives. *Mine*, *ours*, etc., can stand by themselves like pronouns, and may be the subject or object of a verb, or governed by a preposition, whereas *my*, *our*, etc., must be, like ordinary epithet adjectives, followed

by a noun.¹ *Mine, ours*, etc., are also said to be used **absolutely** ; *i.e.*, not as adjuncts or epithets.

N.B. (i) *Its* is not used in this way, *i.e.*, absolutely as a possessive pronoun. Instead of saying of any sexless thing, *e.g.*, a bicycle, "This is its" we must say "This belongs to it."

(ii) *His* is used both as a pronoun and adjectivally.

(iii) Similarly the genitive case of a noun can be used absolutely without a noun indicating the thing possessed ; not only in such sentences as

My bicycle is better than *that boy's*.

but in such sentences as

We will go to *Hari Babu's*.

I bought this at *Whiteaway, Laidlaw's*, where we may explain the meaning by saying that nouns like *house* and *shop* are understood.

§ 141. (a) *Our* aunt died yesterday. *Her* son is coming to-day.

(b) *My* uncles are not rich men. *Their* land is very poor.

(c) *Hari* cannot find *his* books. *His* sister has hidden them.

From these examples it will be seen that the choice between the different possessive adjectives depends not on the gender and number of the

¹ Historical grammars have sometimes insisted that as all these forms, (*my* as well as *mine*, etc.,) originated from the genitive of the personal pronouns, *my, our*, etc. should be called, "possessive pronouns," but a grammar of Modern English is concerned with function rather than origin ; and the fact remains that they *are used adjectivally*. It is therefore wise to follow the Committee on Terminology, and call them possessive adjectives.

words they qualify (usually representing the things possessed), but upon the sex and number of the possessor or possessors.

Any one of the words *my*, *our*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *their*, may accompany a singular or a plural noun, a masculine, a feminine, or a neuter noun, without any corresponding change of form ; e.g., *my book*, *my books* ; *my uncle*, *my aunt*.

My, *his*, *her*, *its*, are used if there is only *one* possessor.

Our, *their* are used if there are two or more possessors.

His is used if the possessor is a male.

Her is used if the possessor is a female.

Its is used if the possessor has no sex or the sex is undetermined.

Your is used of any number of possessors.

My, *our*, *your*, *their* are used regardless of the sex of the possessors,

§ 142. The various case-forms of the personal pronouns may be tabulated as follows¹:—

Case	FIRST PERSON		SECOND PERSON	
	Singular.	Plural.	Singular	Plural
Nominative	I	we	[thou] you	[ye] you
Vocative	(me)	...	[thou] you	[ye] you
Accusative	me	us	[thee] you	you
Genitive	my, mine	our, ours	[thy, thine] your, yours	your, yours
Dative	me	us	[thee] you	you

¹ The forms in square brackets, *thou*, *ye*, etc., are obsolete.

THIRD PERSON

CASE	SINGULAR			PLURAL
	Masc.	Fem.	Neuter	All genders
Nominative	he	she	it	they
Accusative	him	her	it	them
Genitive	his, his	her, hers	its, —	their, theirs
Dative	him	her	it	them

This is called the **declension** of the personal pronouns ; or they are said to be “**declined**” in this way.

The declension of nouns may be stated thus :

	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nom.	king	kings	fox	foxes	man	men
Voc.	(O) king	(O) kings	(O) fox	(O) foxes	(O) man	(O) men
Acc.	king	kings	fox	foxes	man	men
Gen.	king's	kings'	fox's	foxes'	man's	men's
Dat.	king	kings	fox	foxes	man	men

EXERCISE 67

Fill the gaps in the following sentences with suitable possessive pronouns or possessive adjectives :—(1) The queen mourned bitterly for—husband. (2) The coolies are now eating—meal. (3) Your orange is bigger than—. (4) Rama has broken two of—fingers. (5) Our car is not so good as—. (6) My brothers and—go to the same school. (7) Hari is taller than—sisters.

CHAPTER XXVII

CASE-PHRASES.

A. The genitive case-phrase.

§ 143. We have seen that when a noun is used in the genitive case its form is changed by means of an inflexion ; *e.g.*, the sound *-s* is added, as in “the *tigers’* skin”. But the same meaning can be conveyed by means of a phrase containing the preposition *of* governing the noun in its objective case-form : — “the skin *of the tiger*”. The phrase is equivalent to the genitive case-form (*i.e.*, the inflected form for the genitive case) and may be called the genitive **case-phrase**.

§ 144. Such a case-phrase is far more commonly used than the inflexional genitive with reference to inanimate things. We say “the lid of the box” instead of “the box’s lid”, “the stalk of the flower” instead of “the flower’s stalk”, “the colour of the wall” instead of “the wall’s colour”. “the date of her marriage” instead of “her marriage’s date”.

With reference to animals both forms are commonly used except where the name is long and ends in a hissing sound, *e.g.*, *rhinoceros*. We say “a *stag’s* horns”, but “the horn *of a rhinoceros*”.

For names of persons the inflected case-form is normal. The inflected form is also used for personified things and qualities, with various

nouns denoting time and measure, and in certain recognised phrases: "duty's call", "the sun's light", "the earth's rotation" (as well as "the call of duty", "the light of the sun", etc.); "a week's holiday", "five minutes' delay", "a stone's throw"; "you may play to your heart's content", "out of harm's way", "a winter's day". We may say "for his country's sake" as well as "for the sake of his country" because we regard his country almost as if it were a person; but we do not say 'his country's roads are very bad'.

It is to be noticed that after the indefinite article the case phrase form is used even for persons: "a son of Surendra Babu", not "a Surendra Babu's son" (though we say "Surendra Babu's son" instead of "the son of Surendra Babu").

It will be seen then that while the inflected genitive case-form and the case phrase are frequently *equivalent* to they are not the same as, each other; and one can not always be used instead of the other.

Order of words. The inflexional genitive case-form is usually placed *before* the noun which it qualifies, like any other epithet-adjective; the genitive case-phrase is placed *after* the noun, like any ordinary adjective-phrase. If used predicatively and absolutely the case-form may follow both noun and verb: *e.g.*, "This book is Hari's".

B. The Dative Case-Phrase.

§ 145. Similarly instead of the simple dative case "he gave *the man* some money", "I offered

the boy a rupee", we may have a case-phrase made up of the preposition *to* governing the noun or pronoun (in the objective or accusative case)¹: "He gave some money *to the man*", "I offered a rupee *to the boy*"; the case-phrases "to the man" and "to the boy" being dative equivalents.

When is the dative case-phrase to be used? If the direct and the indirect objects are both nouns either the simple dative or the case-phrase may be used, as above.

If the direct and the indirect objects are both pronouns the case-phrase is generally used for the latter. "The man gave it *to me*" (or "The man *to whom* I gave it"), is better than "The man gave *me* it" (or "The man *whom* I gave it").

If the direct object is a noun and the indirect object is a pronoun the simple dative is generally used for the latter: "I gave *him* a rupee" rather than "I gave a rupee to him", unless it is intended to emphasise the pronoun: "I gave the rupee *to him* (and not to her)".

If the direct object is a pronoun and the indirect object is a noun a case-phrase is generally

NOTE 1. The Joint Committee's recommendation XXXVII is that "the combination of a preposition with a noun or pronoun may be called a *case-phrase*; and that if the case of the noun or pronoun depending on the preposition be named, it be called the *accusative*." In Old English the dative was used with great frequency after prepositions; in course of time the accusative case lost its special inflexion (if it had one) and became in form the same as the dative, and instead of *hine, hie, hwone*, we have *him, her, whom* from the dative forms. So it may seem allowable here to retain the term "*objective*" to cover both the accusative (direct object) case and the dative (indirect object) case. See p.132, § 122.

used for the latter : "I gave it *to the man*", not "I gave the man it".

Order of words. The simple dative case-form is usually placed after the verb and *before* the direct object : "I gave *him* a book", "I gave *the man* a book". The dative case-phrase is usually placed *after* the direct object : "I gave the money *to that man*"; although for the sake of emphasis, especially when a contrast is intended, it is occasionally placed before the subject : "To my brother he gave some books, but to me he gave money"; and it is placed before the direct object, when the latter has an adjectival clause attached to it ; "I gave to that man the money which I found in the railway carriage".

[**We sometimes say "I gave it him" (=to him), but this is regarded as loose or colloquial, and in careful speech we say "I gave it *to him*".]

In deciding which word is the indirect object we may be guided partly by the order of the words, but more by the meaning. Only those words are in the dative case, which may be preceded by *to* or *for*, perhaps with some change of order. "Bring me a chair". The dative usually precedes the direct object ; therefore *me* is likely to be dative. We can say *for me* instead of *me* ("bring a chair for me"), and therefore *me* is certainly dative. It is generally helpful, therefore, to ask "to or for whom" something is given, told, etc. For whom is the chair to be brought ? For "me" (or to "me"). Therefore *me* is dative.

§ 146. If we include case-phrases we may therefore decline nouns or tabulate their cases as follows :—

	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	the king	the kings	the fox	the foxes
Vocative	(O) king	(O) kings	(O) fox	(O) foxes
Accusative	the king	the kings	the fox	the foxes
Genitive	the king's (of the king)	the kings' (of the kings)	the fox's (of the fox)	the foxes' (of the foxes)
Dative	the king (to the king)	the kings (to the kings)	the fox (to the fox)	the foxes (to the foxes)
Nom.	<i>The king</i> was hunting.		<i>Foxes</i> are very cunning.	
Voc.	<i>O king</i> , have mercy.		<i>O kings</i> , do not abuse your power.	
Acc	The king killed a <i>fox</i> .		He has killed many <i>foxes</i> before.	
Gen.	The <i>king's</i> servant brought him the <i>fox's</i> tail.		<i>Kings'</i> palaces are not always beautiful.	
Dat.	They brought <i>the king</i> a tiger's skin.			

EXERCISE 68

Wherever they are necessary or suitable put case-phrases instead of genitive or dative case-forms, changing the order where it is necessary. Are any of the sentences bad? (1) He gave my father the tigers' skins. (2) My uncle's gardener gave me some roses. (3) The coolie brought the shopkeeper some change. (4) The shopkeeper's son handed me the money. (5) He gave me it without saying anything. (6) The shop's door was shut.

EXERCISE 69

Put genitive or dative case-forms instead of case-phrases wherever suitable, changing the order where necessary. Are any of the sentences bad? (1) Give to me some money, please. (2) I saw the father of him yesterday. (3) The necks of horses are covered with thick hair. (4) The nests of the mice are not easy to find. (5) The uncle of George gave to him a pen that he had made for him from the quill of a goose. (6) I gave to the daughter of the man an anna.

C. Other case-phrases.

§ 147. With certain nouns other case-phrases are possible to express other case-relations. In the sentence "The robber

shot the old man *with a pistol*", the case-phrase *with a pistol* may be called **instrumental**. The preposition *with* shows that the case-relation between *the pistol* and the predicate is instrumental; the pistol is the instrument with which the action was carried out.

Similarly, in sentences like "He lives *at Benares*", "He lives *in that village*", the case-phrases may be called **locative**. The prepositions show that the nouns which follow denote the *place* where a thing is or an action is happening.

Again, in the sentences "I took the pistol *from the robber*", "I went away *from Calcutta*", the case-phrase may be called **ablative**. It indicates a taking away from some one or some place.

These case-relations are in some classical languages, *e.g.*, Sanskrit, expressed by inflected case-forms, but in English they are expressed only by case-phrases, and the Latin names given are of still less importance than are the Latin names of the other cases.

Parsing.

§ 148. We have now some other points to mention in the parsing of nouns and pronouns; *viz.*, case (for all nouns and pronouns), and gender (for personal pronouns and some nouns).

1. Hari's father lent my brother two rupees.

Hari's—proper noun, singular, genitive case, qualifying *father*.

father—class noun, singular, (masculine), nominative case subject to *lent*.

my—possessive adjective, first person singular, qualifying *brother*.

brother—class noun, singular, (masculine), dative case, indirect object of *lent*.

rupees—class noun, plural, accusative case, direct object of *lent*.

2. I gave my book to the teacher ; this is yours.

I—personal pronoun, first person singular, nominative case, subject to *gave*.

my—possessive adjective, first person singular, qualifying *book*.

book—class noun, singular, accusative case, object of *gave*.

to the teacher-- dative case-phrase, indirect object of *gave*.

to—preposition governing *teacher*.

teacher—class noun, singular, accusative (or objective) case, governed by the preposition *to*.

yours - possessive pronoun, singular, nominative case (in agreement with *this*) used predicatively as complement to *is*.



CHAPTER XXVIII.

REFLEXIVES AND EMPHASIZING WORDS.

A. Reflexive Pronouns.

§ 149. I hurt *myself*.

He values *himself* too highly.

Have you washed *yourselves* ?

Foxes hide *themselves* in the day-time.

In each of these sentences the object denotes the same person as the subject ; the action of the doer is thrown back or reflected onto the doer, and the pronoun which stands as the object is called a **reflexive pronoun**.

A reflexive pronoun may also be governed by a preposition closely joined with the verb :

He is always talking about *himself*.

You were talking to *yourself*.

Here verb + preposition might almost be regarded as forming a compound verb with the pronoun as its direct object ; *e.g.*, *talking + to* = 'addressing', which would take a direct object, *viz.*, *yourself*.

Similarly the reflexive forms may be used for the indirect object :

I gave *myself* a severe blow,

They give *themselves* airs.

The reflexive forms are :—

	1st person	2nd person	3rd person
Singular	myself	(thyslf) yourself	himself, herself, itself
Plural	ourselves	yourselves	themselves

Also the indefinite *oneself* as in

One should not praise *oneself*.

The use of the reflexive pronoun shows that the doer of the action is also the person affected by it. It is always in the same person and

number as the subject of the verb,¹ although its case is always accusative or dative.

B. **Emphasizing words.**

(1) *Emphasizing Pronouns.*

- § 150. I *myself* saw the accident.
 You *yourself* are to blame.
 I saw the magistrate *himself*.
 I gave the postman *himself* a rupee.
 The robbers *themselves* were young men.

In these sentences the words *myself*, *yourself*, *himself*, *themselves*, are used along with nouns or other pronouns to emphasize them, and they are to be regarded as **emphasizing pronouns** standing in apposition to the nouns or other pronouns, in whatever case.¹

“He himself must come” means that he must not send someone else instead of him; it states emphatically, in order that there may be no mistake, that *he* is the person who is required.

§ 151. The pupil should avoid the mistake of saying that in such sentences *myself*, *himself*, etc. are reflexive pronouns used emphatically. The truth is that these words, although they have the same form, are used in two distinct ways:—(a) as emphasizing pronouns, (b) as reflexive pronouns.²

¹ Or perhaps as emphasizing adjectives, qualifying the nouns or pronouns with which they stand.

² Historically these forms were at first used only as emphasizing pronouns; then later they came into use also as reflexives.

An emphasizing pronoun *may* refer to a person who is not the doer of the action, *e.g.*, 'I saw the magistrate himself'; whereas a reflexive pronoun *always* denotes a person who is the doer as well as the person affected by the action, *e.g.*, "The carpenter cut himself."

An emphasizing pronoun is like an adjective in that it goes along with a noun or pronoun, expressed or understood (and may be, perhaps better regarded as an adjective); whereas a reflexive pronoun stands by itself and is not used adjectivally.

§ 152. (i) *Oncelf* is also used emphatically:—

To be successful one must do everything oneself.

(ii) The third personal neuter form of an emphasizing pronoun is used with names of things of almost any kind, even inanimate;

I did not see the money itself, but I saw the bag that contained it.

The bricks themselves were good, although the wall was badly built.

But *itself* (or *themselves*) is used reflexively only (1) of creatures whose sex is unknown or of no consequence:

The tiger hurled itself on the poor shikari,

or (2) of things that may be imagined as having activity or even life:

The engine smashed itself to pieces.

The fire burnt itself out.

Two ideas have suggested themselves.
The storm exhausted itself.

** An emphatic pronoun is occasionally used as object (especially of a preposition) without the personal pronoun which it normally accompanies: "The decision rests with himself", "Noone but yourself can be blamed".

(ii) *Emphasizing Adjectives.*

§ 153. Just as an emphasizing pronoun is used along with another personal pronoun, so an **emphasizing adjective** is often used along with the possessive adjective that is formed from the genitive case of a personal pronoun or with the genitive of a noun used adjectivally to indicate possession. Such an emphasizing adjective is *own*.

This is my book.
(Emphatic form)—This is my *own* book.
Milton's poems contain some translations.
(Emphatic form)—*Milton's own* poems
are the best.

So also (in poetry): "Thy *own* sweet smile I see" (Cowper).

In the following sentences:

The *very* spot,
Where many a time he triumphed.

I read it to the *very* end
the emphasizing adjective *very* is used are pro-
nouns in other cases. ouns, whose

Selfsame is an emphatic form of *time*; just as *here*

(iii) Emphasizing Adverbs.

Similarly there are emphasizing adverbs :

I stayed to the *very* last minute.

I wore my *very* best clothes.

Here *very* is an adverb modifying the adjectives *last* and *best*.

EXERCISE 70

Parse the italicised words below :—(1) Rama cut *himself* a week ago ; I *myself* bandaged his hand. (2) On the *very* same day his sister hurt *herself*. She was cutting up some fish, but cut her *own* hand instead. (2) The *very* stones would cry out if you did that. Your *own* conscience ought to prevent you.

EXERCISE 71

Fill up the blank places in the following sentences with suitable reflexive pronouns or emphasising words, saying which part of speech you are using :

(1) I—think that you should not give a holiday yet. (2) He continued his dishonesty to the—day of his father's death. (3) He is always talking about—(4) They enjoyed—up to the—end. (5) A tigress will defend her—cubs to the—last minute, but not those of another tigress.

CHAPTER XXIX

DEMONSTRATIVES OR INDICATING WORDS.

§ 154. *This* train goes to Calcutta ; *that* goes to Allahabad.

I saw *that* motor-car yesterday. No, *that* is not *the same*.

Here you can see rice ; *there* you find barley.

Yonder is the old banyan tree.

Those goats are running hither and thither.

He may be rich *now* ; but he used to be poor *then*.

The italicised words in these sentences all serve, without naming them, to distinguish certain things or places from certain other things or places, or one thing or place or time from another thing or place or time.¹ They are "pointing-out words" or **demonstratives**.

Demonstrative words may be pronouns, or adjectives, or adverbs.

A. Demonstrative Pronouns.

§ 155. Demonstrative pronouns are pronouns, *i.e.*, words used instead of nouns, whose

¹ 'Now' means 'at *this* time'; 'then' 'at *that* time'; just as 'here' means 'at *this* place', 'there' 'at *that* place'.

work is to point out the persons or things to which the speaker is referring.

1. (a) His speech is not *that* of an Englishman. (*that* = the speech).

(b) The rivers of India are greater than *those* of Ceylon. (*those* = the rivers.)

Here *that* and *those* stand instead of nouns previously used.

That may even stand for a whole sentence; e.g.,

(c) *Rama*. I have won a scholarship.

Hari. I am glad to hear *that*.

(d) *Hari*. My father has fallen ill.

Rama. I did not know *that*. I am sorry.

2. (a) We need both water and food; *this* builds up our bodies, *that* keeps them clean. (*this* = food; *that* = water.)

(b) What are those animals?

(i) *This* is a donkey; *that* is a horse.

(ii) *These* are donkeys; *those* are horses.

In sentence 2 (a) *this* refers to the nearer of the two nouns mentioned, i. e., the latter (*food*; *that* refers to the noun further away, i. e., the former (*water*). *That* and *this* are, when used like this to distinguish between two nouns already mentioned, equivalent to the *former* and the *latter*. In sentence 2 (b) *this* and *that*, and *these* and *those*, refer to the nearer and the farther away respectively of two objects or groups of objects to which a general reference has been made. They distinguish between different things or parts of a thing or of a group, and point out which is meant.

3. (a) Beggars generally become *such* (= beggars) by their own fault.
(b) Suffer little children to come unto me for of *such* (= of little children) is the Kingdom of God.
4. (a) He said *the same* every day.
(b) Whosoever shall humble himself as this little child, the same (= *he*, or *that* man) is the greatest in the kingdom of heaven.

The following words, therefore, may be used as demonstrative pronouns :—*this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, *such*, *the same*.

B. Demonstrative Adjectives.

§ 156. **Demonstrative adjectives** are adjectives used along with nouns (expressed or understood) to point out *which* or *what* person or thing is denoted.

This animal is a goat.

Those men are Punjabis.

Such conduct is dishonest.

That cloth is of *the same* colour.

(He is *the* man whom I admire.)

Demonstratives commonly used as adjectives are :—*this*, *that* ; *these*, *those* ; *such*, *the same*. These words may be used either as adjectives or pronouns. We must examine the sentences in which they occur and observe what kind of work the words do. We must see whether they are used *instead* of a noun (*i.e.* as pronouns) or

with a noun, expressed or understood (*i.e.* as adjectives).¹

Other examples are "your *present* opinion is better than your *former* one", "*the late* king". "Yonder" is perhaps commoner in poetry than in prose.

C. Demonstrative Adverbs.

§ 157. My father lives *here* ; my brother lives *there*.

Here means "in *this* place"; *there* means "in *that* place" (further away from the speaker). Similarly *hence* and *thence* mean "from this place" and "from that place". (Cf. also *hither* and *thither*.) We have only to realise this in order to understand how **demonstrative adverbs** correspond to demonstrative adjectives. They are "pointing out words" ; but the difference is that, like any other adverbs, they point out where or when (and even, perhaps, how) an action takes place, instead of referring to a thing or person ; they modify verbs instead of qualifying or standing instead of nouns.

They may be subdivided into demonstrative adverbs of

^{** 1} In a sentence like "this picture and *that* belong to my father", it is perhaps open to dispute whether *that* is a pronoun or an adjective qualifying the noun *picture* (understood as repeated with it). The latter seems preferable, just as in "Good boys and *bad* (= bad boys), all were present "we should call *bad* an adjective. The matter is of little importance save as showing how unsafe it is to draw hard and fast lines and formulate a rigid law for a living language. To do so would not be profitable even if it were possible.

(1) place—*here, hence, hither ; there, thence, thither ; yonder, near, far, away ; above, below ; before, behind ;*

(2) time—*now, then, soon ; to-day, yesterday, to-morrow ; before, formerly, previously ; after, afterwards.*

(3) manner - *thus* (=in *this* way), *so* (=in *that* way).

e.g., I can see a house *yonder*.

We shall not go *far*.

(These and some other words may also be used as adjectives : “There are still sheep on *yonder* hill.” “At the foot of *yonder* nodding beech.” (Gray). “He has gone to a *far* country.”)

My brothers are coming *behind*.

I could not come *before*.

We must look *above* for help.

You can see him *below*.

(These and some other words may also be used as prepositions governing a noun or pronoun in an adverbial phrase : I was standing *behind* him. I will come *before* midday. He was *above* me in the examination. He remained *below* the surface.)

§ 158. Examples of parsing :

1. The speech of *those* men is not *that* of Englishmen.

Those—demonstrative adjective, plural, qualifying *men*.

That—demonstrative pronoun, singular, nominative case used predicatively as subjective complement of the verb *is*, and agreeing with the subject *speech*.

2. A wounded man was lying *there*.

There—demonstrative adverb (of place), modifying *was lying*.

EXERCISE 72

Parse the italicised words below, carefully distinguishing between demonstrative pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs :

1. The price of wheat is *now* higher than *that* of rice.
2. *This* rice is unpolished. 3. *Those* who eat *that* kind will be healthier. 4. *These* men are robbers and cheats ; *such* are of no use to a nation 5. You should have come *here before*. 6. I could not come *after* dinner yesterday. 7. A kite was soaring *above* these tree-tops. 8. Let us go up *above*.

CHAPTER XXX

INTERROGATIVE WORDS.

- § 159. 1. *Who* stood first in the examination ?
 2. *Which* book do you want ?
 3. *Where* did you put the book ?
 4. *When* will your uncle come ?

The words *who*, *which*, *where*, *when*, at the beginning of these sentences show that questions

are being asked. They are "question-asking" or **interrogative** words. Other similar words are *what, why, how*.

These question-asking words belong to different parts of speech. It will perhaps be easier to tell which part of speech is being used if we give answers to these questions :

1. *Hari* stood first in English : *I* stood first in History.
2. I want the *red* book.
3. I put it *here*.
4. He will come *to-morrow*.

In these answers words that really give the information that we want are : —

1. *Hari*, a noun ; or *I*, pronoun.
2. *Red*, an adjective.
- 3 and 4. *Here* and *to-morrow*, adverbs.

Correspondingly in sentence (1) *who* is a pronoun ; in (2) *which* is an adjective accompanying a noun) : in (3) and (4) *where* and *when* are adverbs. By the help of an **interrogative pronoun** a question is asked which usually requires a noun or pronoun in its answer : by the help of an **interrogative adjective** a question is asked which usually requires in its answer an adjective or adjectival clause or phrase ; and so with an **interrogative adverb**.

A. Interrogative Pronouns.

- § 160. *Who* is in the house ? *Whom* do you want ?

Whose is this ?

What do you want ? *What* is happening ?

Here are some books and other prizes. *Which* of them would you like ?

There are two brothers. *Which* of them do you prefer ?

An **interrogative pronoun** stands alone and independently at the beginning of a question ; and usually and normally the question can only be answered directly by means of a noun (or pronoun or other equivalent of a noun).

All the interrogative pronouns are used as singular or plural without change of form.

Who and *whom* are used of persons ; *who* in the nominative case, *whom* in the objective case, either accusative as direct object, or for the dative, and case-phrases. "*To whom* did you give it ?"

[Colloquially *who* is frequently used as an objective form, particularly when the preposition in a case-phrase is separated from it and put at the end of the sentence, "*Who* are you looking for ?" "*Who* did you give it *to* ?" ; but the time has not yet come when the student may be advised to imitate this usage.]

What is used of things in general (in the nominative or accusative case) ; or it may be used of a person whom we want to be described : e.g., "*What* is that man ?" (answer "a pleader.")

If we said "*Who* is that man ?" we should expect the man to be identified by his name being given.

Which may refer to either persons or things. It is used when we are thinking of the choice of a particular one or group out of a larger number of persons, or things, etc (probably mentioned) : *e.g.*, "Which would you rather be—a soldier or a sailor ?"

"*Which* is the king." (Answer, "*that* is he.") A question with *which* ? expects a person or thing to be identified by being pointed out. A question with *what* ? expects him or it to be described.

Like *this* and *that* (see §§ 155-156), *which* is perhaps used more often as an adjective than as a pronoun.

Whose, in origin the genitive case of the interrogative pronoun *who*, may be regarded as an interrogative possessive pronoun. (cf. § 140) which is used in the nominative case (or less often in the accusative), like the possessive pronoun which answers it. "*Whose* is this?" (Answer "It is *hers*.")

Whoever and *whatever* are emphatic forms of the interrogative pronoun, often expressing surprise or anger. "*Whatever* do you want ? *Whoever* has sent you here ?"

B. Interrogative Adjectives.

§ 161. *What* animal is that ? I mean *what kind of* animal is it ? *Which* book do you want ? *Which* boys would like to go ? *Whose* pen is this ?

An **interrogative adjective** is used, like any other adjective, along with a noun (or its equivalent), and it is used at the beginning of a question-sentence to which usually a direct answer can only be given by means of an adjective or an adjectival phrase or clause.

Which is used definitely, *i.e.*, when the choice is limited to one or a more or less definite number or group of things or persons out of a larger number. *What* is used generally or indefinitely, *i.e.*, when the selection is from an indefinite number; or when some sort of description is required.

"*Which* book do you want?" means "which particular book out of certain books which have been mentioned or shown to you?" "*What* books do you like?" means "books of *what kind*—story-books, history-books, etc?"

"*What* plan shall I adopt?" Here the speaker is thinking of a selection from all possible plans (or what kind of plan). "*Which* plan shall I adopt?" Here he is thinking only of a definite choice from certain plans already mentioned (or what particular plan).

Whose (*cf.* § 160) as an interrogative possessive adjective may be used along with a noun in any case. The answer to "*Whose* pen is this?" may be "It is *my* pen" or simply "It is *mine*", or "It is that *boy's* (pen)". "To *whose* servant did you give my letter?" (answer "To the *Principal's* servant.")

C. Interrogative Adverbs

§ 162. **Interrogative adverbs**, such as *when* ? *where* ? *how* ? *why* ? may be again classified as adverbs of time place, manner, etc. The questions that are commenced by such words are usually answered by means of adverbs or adverbial phrases or clauses.

Where do you live ? I live *far away, in England*.

How did you travel here ? *By steamer*.

When did you arrive ? *Yesterday*.

Where is your luggage ? *There*.

§ 163. The question-sentences that have been given as examples above are all direct questions and simple sentences ; but these interrogative words may also introduce dependent questions. A dependent question is one form of the noun-clause in a complex-sentence, being the object of the principal verb in the main clause.

He asked *who* we were and *what* we were doing.

I was wondering *by which* train you would come.

I will enquire *when* the train will leave.

The principal verb *asked* has two objects "who we were" and "what we were doing" (noun-clauses). These are introduced by interrogative pronouns ; but the question depends on the principal verb.

N.B. (i) No question-mark is used after an indirect question.

(ii) The order of words in a dependent question is like that in a statement, and is not inverted as it is in a direct question ; but there are other changes, in the pronoun and the verb, which will be studied later.

(iii) The actual words of a direct question may be given within quotation marks.

He asked : "Who are you ?"

§ 164. The parsing of interrogatives :—

(1) *Who* stood first in the examination ?

Who—interrogative pronoun, referring to a person, nominative case, subject to *stood*.

(2) *Which* book do you want ?

Which—interrogative adjective, qualifying *book*.

EXERCISE 73

Make separate lists of the interrogative pronouns and interrogative adjectives in the following sentences, parsing each one fully (*e.g.*, giving the case of each pronoun, and the reason for that case). Make up a suitable answer to each question : 1. Which bat is the strongest ? 2. What do you think ? 3. Whose bicycle do you like best ? 4. Which of those boys broke the window ? 5. Whom was that man abusing ? 6. Who found your watch ? 7. What reward does he want ? 8. To whose house are you going ? 9. What is this thing ? 10. Whose is it ? 11. Who is the speaker ? 12. What is he ?

EXERCISE 74

Fill up the blanks in the following sentences with a suitable interrogative word, saying whether it is a pronoun or an

adjective, and in what case it is : 1. —do we call the name of a person or thing ? 2. —is that man doing ? 3. —of you can tell me ? 4. —will be the top boy of the class ? 5. —is better, honesty or cleverness ? 6. Of—were you talking. 7. —bicycle is this ? 8. —were you visiting. 9. Here are three books ; —would you like ? 10. — games do you play ?

CHAPTER XXXI

RELATIVES.

A. Relative Pronouns.

§ 165. I want a bicycle *that* goes well (or *which* goes well).

I know the man *who* took the money.

We have already seen (§ 53) that in complex sentences adjectival clauses are introduced by words, like *who* (*whom* or *whose*), *which*, or *that*, which do two kinds of work :—(a) linking the subordinate clause to the main clause, and (b) relating to and standing instead of a noun (or its equivalent) in the main clause ; and that these words, which combine the functions of conjunction and pronoun, are commonly called **relative pronouns** (though they might better, perhaps, have been called 'connecting pronouns').

The relative pronoun refers to a noun or pronoun, called its **antecedent**, in the main clause ;

and it is regarded as having the same number, gender, and person as that antecedent, *i.e.*, it *agrees with* its antecedent in number, gender, and person. This agreement causes no change in the form of the relative, which is the same for all numbers and persons¹; but it is important because it may make a difference to the form of other words in the subordinate clause of which it is the subject, *viz.*, verbs, possessive adjectives, and reflexive pronouns.

1. The *man* who *was* killed was my friend.
2. The *men* who *were* killed were my friends.

In sentence 1 *who*, the subject of the subordinate clause, has for its antecedent a singular noun *man*, and is regarded as singular and in the 3rd person. It therefore takes a verb in the 3rd person singular form as its predicate. In sentence 2 its antecedent is *men*, a plural noun, and it, therefore, takes a verb in the plural form.

3. *I*, who *love* you, am here.
4. *He* who *loves* you is here.

In sentence 3 *who* has as its antecedent a singular pronoun in the first person, and therefore is itself regarded as being 1st person singular, and the verb to which it is the subject is accordingly in the 1st person singular form. Similarly *who* in sentence 4 has a singular pronoun in the 3rd person as its antecedent and takes a verb in the 3rd person singular form.

¹ Although the choice of pronoun often depends on whether it refers to a person or a thing, *i.e.*, stands for a masc., fem., or neutre noun.

5. A man who takes care of *his* money will grow rich.

6. A girl who neglects *her* health will die young.

7. The boy who hurt *himself* is my cousin.

In these sentences the gender of the pronouns or possessive adjectives depends on the gender of *who*, which in its turn depends on the gender of the antecedent in each case.

In sentence 5 the antecedent of *who* is a *man*. Therefore *who* is masculine singular and the possessive is in the masculine singular form.

N.B. "This is one of the bravest deeds *that* is known to history" is wrong, because the antecedent of *that* is *deeds*, not *one*. It is therefore plural, not singular ; and the verb should be *are known*.

§ 166. The **case** of a relative pronoun depends entirely on the work that it does in its own subordinate clause. If it serves as subject of the subordinate clause it is in the nominative case (even though its antecedent may not be nominative) :

I know the man *who* took my money.

If it is the object in the subordinate clause it is in the accusative case (even though its antecedent may be in the nominative case).

That is the man *whom* you wounded.

It will be seen that these differences of case-relations are here represented by corresponding differences of case-form.

There is also a genitive form, *whose*, which is used adjectivally, and corresponds to the possessive adjective.

This is the man *whose* son ran away.

For the dative case-relation a case-phrase, *to whom*, is generally used.

Here is the clerk *to whom* I gave the money. though *whom* is sometimes used alone :

He is the man *whom* you gave a rupee.

Similarly other case-phrases, *e.g.*, *from whom*, *by whom*, may be used.

Who may therefore be thus declined (both singular and plural)

	Case-form	Case-phrase.
Nom.	who	
Acc.	whom	
Gen.	whose	(of whom)
Dat.	(whom)	to whom.

Which has the same form for both nominative and accusative cases. For the other case-relations case-phrases are used (objective case governed by a preposition) :—

The metal *of which* there is the most is the cheapest.

The cat *to which* we gave milk is still alive.

The jar *from which* we took the milk was full.

If *that* is used instead of *which* or *whom* in such clauses as these, in which case-phrases are used, the preposition is put at the end of the clause instead of before *that*.

The metal *that* there is the greatest quality *of* is the cheapest.

The cat *that* we gave milk *to* is still alive.

The women *that* he took her money *from* was very old.

But this usage, though common in colloquial speech, is generally avoided by careful writers.

N.B. (i) If *that* is *preceded* by a preposition it must be a demonstrative and not a relative pronoun.

(ii) The relative *that* ('pronounced "thət") and the demonstrative *that*, though spelt in the same way, are pronounced with quite different vowel sounds, and thus are now really different words.

§ 167. *Who* and *whom* (and generally *whose*) are used to refer to persons and frequently to animals¹

Which is used to refer to things or animals, or it may have a clause as its antecedent: "When this house was built, *which* was 8 years ago, the river was a mile away". "Now it is only half a mile away, *which* may surprise you".

¹ Especially the higher animals and those that we think of as having feelings and thoughts like persons.

That is used to refer to persons or things.

Whose is now generally used to indicate possession by persons and frequently by animals ; *of which* being much more common with reference to things : "This is the boy *whose* father died." "The only submarine *of which* traces could be found was useless."

As, usually referring to things, is used as a relative introducing a subordinate (adjectival) clause when the antecedent contains the pronoun or adjective *such* or *the same* : "He played *such* music *as* I have never heard", "I think *the same as* you think."

****Note.¹**—*But* also has sometimes been used as a relative pronoun equivalent to *that*.....*not* after a negative : "There is no one *but* thinks him foolish" (=no one who does not think.....).

****²** If the antecedent is a collective noun strictly so used the pronoun *which* is preferred, the collection being thought of as a unit : "He went into action with a battalion *which* had lost half its strength." But if it is used rather as a noun of multitude, the individual people composing the unit being of *who* is often used ; "He commanded for ten years a regiment *who* loved their colonel."

N.B. *What* and *who* are also used as interrogative pronouns introducing dependent questions. If these are confused with relatives without antecedents the difficulty may be solved by seeing whether "that which" can be used instead of *what*, or "he who" instead of *who*. If so they must be relatives.

What is frequently used, referring to things, without any antecedent, (being equivalent to

“that which”) as if it contained its antecedent in itself :

What is done, cannot be undone.

“Cannot be undone” is the main predicate of a complex sentence of which the subject is “what is done”. “What is done” is a noun-clause, within which *what* is the subject of “is done”.

The whole is equivalent to

That which is done, cannot be undone.

where *that* is the subject of the main clause, “That...cannot be undone”, and which is done, is an adjective clause.

If the subordinate clause is placed before the main clause, the demonstrative pronoun *that* is sometimes, but not very frequently, used as the antecedent of *what* :

What I have said, *that* I will maintain.

** [*Who* and *whom* were once similarly used without antecedent ; but this usage is now uncommon, although it is preserved in such well-known sayings as “Whom the Gods love die young” (whom = those whom), and “Who steals my purse steals trash” (who = he who, the man who).]

The special emphasising and generalising forms compounded with *-ever* and *-soever* are commonly used like *what*, with no antecedent.

Whoever comes will be welcome.

Whatsoever you do will be misunderstood.

§ 168. Subordinate adjectival clauses, however, are found without any relative pronoun

when, if present, it would have been the object of a verb or preposition in that clause :

This is the pony I bought yesterday.

If we had said "This is the pony that (*or* which) I bought" *that* or *which* would have been the object of *bought*, the verb of the subordinate clause.

Here is the book I was speaking of.

This is the man I gave the money to.

** [Some clauses commencing with a relative pronoun are not really subordinate (or restrictive), but co-ordinate (or continuative); e.g., "I wrote to my father, *who* came back at once." Here the relative clause is not really adjectival, describing or defining my father, but goes on to make an additional statement; it merely "continues" the information which is being given, just as the second part of a double sentence does, and is equivalent to "*and he*". Such sentences are always separated by commas, and are never introduced by *that*.

In such a sentence as "I wrote to the man *who* came here yesterday" the relative clause describes the man and explains which man I mean. This explanatory clause does not need to be separated by commas.

These continuative and restrictive (or explanatory) relative clauses will be dealt with further (Ch. XLVIII).]

Parsing of Relative Pronouns.

§ 169. It is always important to state the antecedent and the number, which depends on that of the antecedent and affects the form of the subordinate verb, and the case, which depends on the work done in the subordinate clause.

The gender and person are also frequently of importance (again depending on the antecedent,

and affecting certain words in the subordinate clause).

(1) "We saw the woman *who* had lost her jewels".

who—relative pronoun, singular, feminine, (third person), agreeing with its antecedent *the woman*; introducing the subordinate adjectival clause *who had lost her jewels* (qualifying *woman*), in which it is nominative case, subject to *had lost*.

(The gender of *who* is important here because it affects the form of the possessive adjective, which is *her* and not *his*.)

(2) "It is I *who* have suffered most."

who—relative pronoun, singular, first person, agreeing with its antecedent *I*; introducing the subordinate adjectival clause *who have suffered most* (qualifying *I*), in which it is nominative case subject to *have suffered*.

(Here the person of *who* is important because it affects the form of the verb, which is *have*, not *has*.)

(3) Here is the man *that* I gave the money to

that—relative pronoun, singular, agreeing with its antecedent *the man*; introducing the subordinate adjectival clause *that I gave the money to* (which qualifies *the man*), in which it is accusative case, governed by the preposition *to*.

B. Relative Adjectives.

§ 170. I gave him *what* money I had.
In this sentence *what*, going with the noun

money, is obviously an adjective, (and not a pronoun as it is in "I gave him what I had found"). "What money I had" is the direct object of *gave*. It is a noun-clause in a complex sentence of which *gave* is the principal verb. Within the noun clause, *what money* is the object of *had*. In this case there is no antecedent expressed and as in the case of the relative pronoun (see § 167) *what* may be regarded as containing its antecedent within itself.

The sentence is equivalent to "I gave him *the money which* (= *that money which*) I had"; *the* (or *that*) *money* being the object of *gave* in the main clause ("I gave him the money"), and *which* the object of *had* in the subordinate (adjectival) clause ("which I had"). *What* is sometimes therefore said to be the equivalent of *that which*.

** NOTE 1. *What*, used in this way, suggests that the quantity or number is limited ; and the adjectives *little* and *few* are often combined with it :

I gave him *what little money* I had.

** NOTE 2. The subordinate clause is occasionally placed first, e.g., "What money I had I gave him" ; and when this occurs an antecedent *that* is sometimes expressed.

** NOTE 3. Just as *my*, *your*, etc, do the work of adjectives, rather than that of pronouns, so *whose* is perhaps to be regarded as adjectival rather than as a pronoun, though for convenience it has been treated amongst the relative pronouns. "The boy *whose* father died is now ill".

C. Relative adverbs.

§ 171. He was lying in the place *where* he fell.

In this sentence "where he fell" is an adjectival clause defining "the place". This subordinate clause is introduced by *where*, which (1) refers back to its antecedent *place* in the main clause, and (2) is an adverb modifying *fell* in its own clause. It is therefore a **relative adverb**.

Its relative function may, perhaps, become clearer if we observe that *where* may be replaced by *in which*, an adverbial phrase made up of a preposition governing a relative pronoun.

Words commonly used as relative adverbs are *where*, *when*, *why* (= *for which* as in "I told him the reason why I came"). Less common or antiquated are *whence* (=from which), *whither* (=to which).

N.B. These words are not *always* relative adverbs. They may be interrogatives, and they may also be ordinary connective adverbs (cf §55-6), when they have no antecedents, as in

He was lying *where* he fell.

EXERCISE 75

Analyse the following sentences. Pick out and parse the relatives.

- (1) The soldier who was riding drew a pistol.
- (2) The dog chased the cow that was mooing for her calf.
- (3) Ye Mariners of England
That guard our native seas !
Whose flag has braved, a thousand years,
The battle and the breeze.
- (4) The very spot
Where many a time he triumphed is forgotten.
- (5) The moping owl complains of such as molest her home.

- (6) There breathes not clansman of thy line.
But would have given his life for mine.
- (7) What is good for one man may not be good for another.

EXERCISE 76

Put suitable relatives into the blanks in the following sentences, and parse them. (1) Praise him from— all blessings flow. (2) The picture— I was looking at was very fine. (3) Here are three hockey-sticks. You can take— you like. (4) You must do— you can. (5) I still think the same— before. (6) This is the man— shop I bought my watch in.

EXERCISE 77

Analyse the following sentences, putting in a suitable relative pronoun where one has to be, or may be, understood. Give an alternative if possible.

- (1) I am monarch of all I survey.
- (2) and still the wonder grew,
That one small head could carry all he knew.
- (3) Honour the charge they made.
- (4) This is the man I bought my watch from.
- (5) He gave to Misery all he had.
-

CHAPTER XXXII

WORDS DENOTING NUMBER AND QUANTITY.

§ 172. (A) 1. **Adjectives of Number— Numeral Adjectives.**

Two oxen can pull a plough.

One ox is not enough.

Each platoon has about *sixty* men.

There are *forty* seers in a maund.

There are *sixteen* annas in a rupee.

The words italicised above are all adjectives qualifying nouns that are names of things that can be counted (class-nouns). and they tell us *how many* or *what number* of the things or persons named there are. They are **numeral adjectives** or **adjectives of number**.

(a) (i) The numerals italicised above all refer to a definite number in saying how many things or persons there are. There is a regular series of such definite numerals, called **cardinal numerals** :

1 one
2 two
3 three
4 four
5 five
6 six
7 seven
8 eight
9 nine

10 ten
11 eleven
12 twelve
13 thirteen
14 fourteen
15 fifteen
16 sixteen
17 seventeen
18 eighteen

19 nineteen	100 a hundred
20 twenty	101 a hundred and one
21 twenty-one	111 a hundred and eleven
22 twenty-two	121 a hundred and twenty-one
30 thirty	200 two hundred
40 forty	300 three hundred
50 fifty	1,000 a thousand
60 sixty	1,001 a thousand and one
70 seventy	1,021 a thousand and twenty-one
80 eighty	1,100 eleven hundred
90 ninety	1,200 twelve hundred
	2,000 two thousand
	2,100 two thousand one hundred
	2,200 two thousand two hundred
	100,000 a hundred thousand
	1,000,000 a million

The numbers between the "tens", *e.g.*, between 20 and 30, are formed by adding *one*, *two*, etc., so making compound numerals, *e.g.*, *twenty-one* (21), *twenty-two* (22), etc.

Each of the numeral words *hundred*, *thousand*, *million*, is preceded by *a* or some other numeral, these words forming an adjectival phrase accompanying a noun in the plural form, *a hundred ships*, *a thousand men*, *two million pounds*. *One* is sometimes used instead of *a* when emphasis is required; *e.g.*, "*One* hundred, not three hundred rupees".

Numerals above 100 are formed by means of the conjunction *and*; *e.g.*, 124, *a hundred and twenty-four*. Similarly with numerals between 1000 and 1100: *e.g.*, 1061 *a thousand and sixty-one*; but not over 2000: *e.g.*, 2106, *two thousand one hundred and six*.

From 1100 to 1900 the hundreds are generally named; *e.g.*, 1200 *twelve hundred*; especially

for dates; *e.g.*, 1926 *nineteen hundred and twenty-six*, or more briefly *nineteen twenty-six*, the "hundred" being understood.

The adjectives *single*, *double*, *twofold*, *treble*, *triple*, or *threefold*, *quadruple*, *fivefold*, etc. also refer to number. If a name is necessary they may be called **multiplicatives**.

§ 173. (ii) Under the heading of numeral adjectives we may also consider the words called **ordinal numerals** which refer to the order in which things are placed and indicate the position of a thing in a series. It will be seen that these really do the work of indicating or distinguishing (or "pointing-out") adjectives.

Their forms are mostly derived from those of the cardinal numerals :

1st first	14th fourteenth
2nd second	20th twentieth
3rd third	21st twenty-first
4th fourth	22nd twenty-second
5th fifth	30th thirtieth
6th sixth	40th fortieth
7th seventh	100th hundredth
8th eighth	101st hundred and first
9th ninth	110th hundred and tenth
10th tenth	120th hundred and twentieth
11th eleventh	200th two hundredth
12th twelfth	300th three hundredth
13th thirteenth	etc.

Next and *last* also are adjectives referring to order, when one thing is compared to another or others in the same series.

The cardinal forms are often used *after* certain nouns to do something like the work commonly

done by ordinals standing *before* those nouns ; *e.g.*, Chapter One (=the first chapter), page twenty (=the 20th. page).

§ 174. (b) (i) There are also many words that refer to number, but not to definite number : *all*¹, *every*, *some*, *several* ; *any* (in a question or negative sentence), *no* (=not any) ; *few* (*fewer*, *fewest*), *many* (*more*, *most*) ; *enough*.

These are called **indefinite numerals**.

All good boys will pass ; but *few* will gain distinction.

Some boys will not pass in *every* subject.

There were *many* persons there, but not *enough* persons to fill the room.

Sometimes words like *some* or *any* are to be regarded rather as *indefinite demonstratives* :—
“You may have *some* books, but not *any* books you like”, “You must have *some* address or *other*.”
There is here no reference to number.

Both as an adjective (or pronoun) refers to a *definite* number, *viz.*, *two*, meaning each of *two* things (probably mentioned already or understood) ; “*Both* boys will be punished”.

(*N.B.* *Both* may also be used as a conjunction.)

Whether *other* is definite or indefinite depends on the word that precedes it. It is indefinite in “A man once robbed *some other* men” ; but definite in “A man once robbed *two other* men”. In

¹ *All* may imply a definite proportion, but not a definite number.

the singular, *another*, though referring to a definite number, is indefinite as a demonstrative. *The other* is definite in both ways

The term "indefinite" may be applied to adjectives of different kinds. An **indefinite adjective** is merely one which though qualifying or limiting the application of the noun along with which it goes, does not point out definitely the person or thing named :—*e.g.*, "*Some* men are born gamblers". Amongst these may be placed the **indefinite article**, *a*, *an*.

§ 175. (ii) Adjectives like *each*, *every*, *either* are also called **distributive adjectives**. "Give one rupee to *each* man." "*Either* view may be held". They show that when there are more things than one they are taken separately.

EXERCISE 78

Write out in words the following numerals : 18, 40, 101, 280, 1300, 3400, 28th, 32nd, 100th, 200th.

EXERCISE 79

Of what kinds are the following adjectives : several, third, double, six, each ; I want *some* money, but not much.

§ 176. (A) 2. Adjectives of Quantity.

Have you *much* milk ? No ; we have *enough* water for the day ; but *little* milk.

Give me *some* sugar, please.
I haven't *any* salt.

Had he *any* nobility of character ?

No, he had *little* kindness, and *no* shame.

Have you *much* time. I shall have *more* time tomorrow.

The words italicised above are adjectives qualifying mass-nouns (material nouns or abstract nouns), *i.e.*, names of things (substances or qualities) that cannot be counted ; and they tell as *how much* or *what amount* of the thing there is. They are **adjectives of quantity**. Some of the more common adjectives of quantity are :—*much* (*more, most*) ; *little* (*less, least*) ; *any* (in a question or negative sentence), *no* (=not any), *some enough*.

**[These (except *no*) are indefinite ; but the words *quarter, half, and whole*, are used more or less definitely of the quantity of material contained in a thing :—*a whole loaf, a half-pound*.]

N.B. Some words, *e.g.*, *some, any, no, more, most*, are used both of number and of quantity.

EXERCISE 85

Make up sentences of your own in which the following words are used both (a) as adjectives of number, and (b) as adjectives of quantity :—(1) *some* (2) *any* (3) *no* (4) *more*.

(B) Pronouns of Number and Quantity.

§ 177. Most of the words used as adjectives of number and quantity are also used as pronouns, standing not with but instead of a noun.

The animals went in *two* by *two*.

Two of the persons were women, the *others* were men.

Would you like an orange or an apple?

I would like *both*.

They were marching in *fours* (*i.e.*, in groups of four men).

Life and death are mysteries. *Each* is insoluble.

Hari and Rama are taking part in the sports. *Both* are good runners, but *neither* can jump well.

He was liked by *all*, or *everyone*, or *noone* (sing.) or *none* (plural).

After the French Revolution *all* was changed (or *everything*).

I do not like *any* of these books.
(number)

Have you *any* of that good, white sugar?
(quantity).

I do not want *much* of this stuff. Give *less* of it.

§ 178 Similarly with **indefinite pronouns**:—

Certain of the professors disliked that boy.

One can never tell when the post will come.

This will be hard for *one* who has not learnt Arabic.

If *anyone* comes, *someone* must tell me.

If these are dogs, they are funny *ones*.

Your view is a false *one*.

N.B. (i) In the plural some of these pronouns, *e.g. other*, take a plural inflection ; though of course, when the same words are used as adjectives with a plural noun they cannot do so ("the other men").

They may also be preceded by an article or other adjective.

[Teachers and advanced pupils may note that in these cases the words are even less like adjectives and more like nouns ; they have sometimes been called "noun-pronouns".]

(ii) In deciding whether some of these words are adjectives or pronouns it is well to remember that a pronoun is not always accurately defined as "a word that stands instead of a noun", but is rather "a word that indicates a thing without naming it". The usages quoted above are thus clearly pronominal, but there are some instances where the distinction is less marked, and in sentences like "Would you like this book or *the other* ?", "I would like *either*", it may be argued that *the other* and *both* are adjectives qualifying *book* understood. (cf. § 156).

(iii) Referring to persons (and countable things), *none* is now usually confined to the plural, *noone* being used for the singular, "*Noone* is willing to go" not "*None* is willing...", although we say "*None* are willing...". "*There is none*" may be the answer to a question including a mass-noun ; *e.g.*, "Is there any water in the pot ?"

(iv) Pronouns like *each*, *everyone*, *either*, *neither*, *noone*, are singular, and possessive adjectives referring to them must be used in the singular form ; *e.g.*,

Neither of the men *was* in *his* right place. (Not "*were* in *their* right place.")

Everyone did *his* best (not *their*)*

Reciprocal pronouns.

**[§ 179. Hari and Rama were hitting *each other* (or *one another*). This means that Hari

* If "everyone" refers to females as well as males we must say "*his or her* best", or merely omit the feminine possessive, letting it be understood.

was hitting Rama, and Rama was hitting Hari ; *i.e.*, 'each was hitting the other'.

Similarly "All the people were kicking *one another* in their excitement", "We should always help *one another* (or *each other*)".

Each other, and *one another* are sometimes called **reciprocal pronouns**. There is no justification for the distinction sometimes assumed that *each other* is used only of two persons.

A genitive usage is also found : "Bear *one another's* burdens".]

EXERCISE 81

Make up sentences in which the same words are used both as (i) indefinite pronouns and indefinite adjectives ; (ii) numeral pronouns and numeral adjectives.

EXERCISE 82

Fill up the gaps in the sentences :—

- (1) ——— wishes to be poor (Noone or none).
 - (2) Each boy must run ——— hardest (His or their).
-

CHAPTER XXXIII

ADJECTIVES.

§ 180. We have already studied adjectives of two kinds, *viz.*, indicating adjectives (including demonstrative, possessive, emphasizing, interrogative and relative adjectives) and adjectives of number and quantity ; but the most common

function of the adjective is perhaps to act as a "describing word", *i.e.* as a **descriptive adjective**. Such an adjective may tell us of what shape (*round, square*), size (*big, small*), colour (*red, green*), a thing is ; or whether a person is *kind* or *cruel, happy* or *miserable, tall* or *short, young* or *old, clever* or *stupid*, and so on. Because they say "of what kind" a thing or person is they are also called **adjectives of quality**. They are said to "qualify" the nouns which name the thing described.

[A person who is kind has the quality of kindness, one who is clever has the quality of cleverness, a thing that is hard has the quality of hardness.]

Further examples of descriptive adjectives :—
 "A *Persian* rug is always *costly*", "*Indian* tea is very *strong*", "His *timely* arrival was very *gratifying*"

N.B. Spelling. The first letter of an adjective derived from a proper noun is always written as a capital. See *Persian* and *Indian* above.

EXERCISE 83

(a) Pick out the descriptive adjectives from the following sentences :—1. The tallest boy in the class is a fast runner. 2. These two horses are lame. 3. The small oranges are sweeter than the large ones. 4. The new shop has some very cheap cloth. 5. My old coat is ragged. (b) What other adjectives are there ?

§ 181. Modern English adjectives (except *this, these ; that those*) do not change in form according to the number or gender or case of the

nouns that they qualify¹; but many descriptive adjectives (and the indefinite adjective of number, *few*) are inflected or have suffixes added for another purpose.

- § 182. 1. Hari is a *clever* boy. Rama is *clever*.
2. Abdul is *cleverer* than Hari.
3. Rama is the *cleverest* boy in the class.

In the first sentence we are merely stating that Hari and Rama have the quality of cleverness without saying how much of it they have. They may have little or much ; but in any case they are clever. The adjective is said to be used in its positive form.

In the second sentence, Abdul is *compared* with one other boy, Hari. He has more of the quality of cleverness, or has it in a higher degree. So a special form of the adjective is used, made by adding the suffix or inflexion *-er*. This is called the **comparative form**. It is used when one thing (or person) or set of things (or persons) is compared with another.

In the third sentence Rama is compared with *two or more* boys, *i.e.*, *all* other boys in the class. Of all the boys he has most of the quality of cleverness or has it in the highest degree. To express this a special form of the adjective is

¹ The different forms of the possessive adjectives : *his*, *her*, *its*, *their*, etc. depend on the possessor, not on the thing possessed or noun qualified.

used, made by adding the suffix or inflexion *-est*. This is called the **superlative form**. It is used when one thing (or person) or set of things (or persons) is compared with all the others that are being thought of.

The form used when no comparison is made is usually called the **positive form**.

NOTE (i) It is unnecessary, and generally considered bad style, to use the superlative form when a comparison of only two things or sets of things is implied. It is sufficient to say "He is the *taller* of the two boys", using the comparative form, and not the superlative (*tallest*). [The superlative, however, is often used in every-day speech and cannot be called absolutely wrong ; but it is safer to use the comparative form.]

NOTE (ii) The comparative and superlative forms have been said to express two **degrees of comparison** in contrast to the normal form of the adjective which is called the **positive form**. The terms are not very good, but have now become established. The positive, however, is not properly a "degree of comparison" for when we say that a man is *kind* we are not comparing him with any one. Therefore we should not say that there are the three degrees of comparison.

§ 183. In general we have seen that the comparative form is used for the comparison of two things (or set of things), the superlative form for more than two. But the superlative meaning may be expressed by the comparative form, if one thing is compared with a group consisting of *all* others of that kind :

Rama is cleverer than *all* the other boys
in the class

means the same as

Rama is the cleverest boy in the class.

§ 184. When the comparative form is used in its ordinary way as a true comparative it is generally followed by *than* to complete the comparison.

He is taller *than* his sister
means the same as

He is taller *than* his sister is.

In the latter sentence *than* is a conjunction, and the older grammarians considered that *than* was still a conjunction in such a sentence as

He is taller *than* his sister
which they regarded as a contraction of "He is taller *than* his sister is tall". Therefore they framed a rule that the second member of a comparison must be in the same case as the first, so that we should say

He is taller *than she*
not

He is taller *than her*

[We also say "He is the taller of the two"].

But in idiomatic modern speech and in many good writers *than* is followed by the accusative case of a personal or relative pronoun where this rule would demand a nominative case, *than* being used as a preposition. e.g., "I could not be expected to be wiser *than her*" (Scott). In fact the strict insistence on the nominative case (here *she*) would often be considered pedantic.

Everyone admits that a relative pronoun after *than* must be used in the accusative case: "Mr. Newton, *than whom* no one is of greater authority, says that this is true."

¹ For examples see Nesfield, *Mod. Eng. Grammar*, p. 94, § 231; and cf. Sweet, *New Eng. Gr.*, I, p. 133, § 380, and C. T. Onions, *Advanced Eng. Syntax*, p. 106, § 114 (b). Another classical example in prose is "I am, not less than him, a despiser of the multitude". (Goldsmith).

The accusative case *must* be used in "I like her better than him," as this represents "... better than I like him" if the two members of the comparison are put into the same grammatical form, viz., two clauses. A pupil can always get out of the dilemma by using the full form.

**§ 185. A few Latin comparatives have become naturalised in English, e.g., *senior, junior, superior, inferior*. These are not completed by the conjunction (or preposition) *than*, but by the preposition *to*.

He is senior (superior) to me.

**[With *interior, exterior*, as with *inner, outer, upper*, the standard of comparison is only implied. We do not say *inner* or *interior to* or *than* anything. "Of the two walls *the inner* wall was made of brick *the outer* of stone."]]

§ 186. The following examples will show how a superlative expression is completed :

This is the longest novel (*that*) I have ever read.

He was the noblest Roman *of* them all.

That is the fattest cow *in* the herd. (or "*of* the herd").

["The Rover is the best motor-car *on* the market." Where prepositions other than *of* are used the adjectival phrases "in the herd", "on the market" etc., may be regarded as contracted forms of "(the best car) of those that are on the market", etc.]

§ 187. Words of three or more syllables (and often shorter ones) make their comparative and superlative forms, not by adding a suffix or inflexion, but by prefixing the adverbs *more* (for the comparative) and *most* (for the superlative).

More beautiful most beautiful.

The forms¹ are used in the same way as those made by adding *-er* or *-est*.

§ 188. Formation of comparatives and superlatives :—

The following adjectives form their comparatives by adding *-er* and their superlatives by adding *-est* :—

1. Adjectives of one syllable : *tall, taller, tallest* ; *red, old, new, dry* ; except those formed from verbs (past participles), *e.g., blest, pleased, tired*.

2. Adjectives of two syllables of which the first is stressed, *i.e.*, pronounced the more forcibly and loudly.

(a) when the second is a weak syllable consisting of (i) a vowel sound, *e.g.*, *-y* or *-ow*, or (ii) a vowel sound with a liquid consonant, *e.g.*, *-le* (not *-ful*) or *-er* :—

(i) *happy, happier, happiest* ; *easy, lovely, jolly, early, angry, dirty, shallow, shallower, shallowest* ; *narrow, hollow, yellow*.

(ii) *gentle, gentler, gentlest* ; *simple, noble, able, humble, (not useful, awful, etc.)* ; *clever, cleverer, cleverest* ; *bitter, tender, (not eager.)*²

¹ If a name is required, the forms made by “putting together” two words—*more* (or *most*) + *beautiful*—might be called “synthetic” ; those made by adding *-er* or *-est* being called “inflexional” (although it is disputed whether *-er* and *-est* are to be called inflexions or suffixes).

² These comparatives or superlatives remain disyllabic *e.g.*, *gentler*, or could conceivably be reduced to two syllables by slurring the last two weak syllables, *e.g.*, *clever'er*.

(b) others :—*common*, *quiet*, *pleasant*, frequently *handsome*, and sometimes *wholesome* (especially in the superlative). *Cruellest* and *stupidest* are common, but *more cruel* and *more stupid* are preferred for the comparative forms.

§ 189. As a matter of spelling

- (1) final -y after a consonant is changed to -i,
 - (2) a final consonant after a short vowel (in a monosyllabic word) is doubled,¹
 - (3) final -e is dropped,
- before -er and -est are added.

(1) *dry*, *drier*, *driest*; *happy*, *happier*, *happiest*; but *gay*, *gayer*;

(2) *fat*, *fatter*, *fattest*; *thin*, *thinner*, *thinnest*; but *green*, *greener*;

(3) *nice*, *nicer*, *nicest*; *blue*, *bluer*, *bluest*; *free*, *freer*, *freest*.

**[Adjectives of two syllables of which the second is stressed, *i.e.*, pronounced the more forcibly and loudly, e.g., *complete*, *remote*, *sincere*, *profound*, *obscure*, *polite*, sometimes add -er and -est (especially the latter)—*completer*, *completest*—and sometimes prefix the adverbs *more* and *most* (especially the former)—*more complete*, *most complete*. But when the second syllable ends in two or three consonants—*direct*, *correct*, *abrupt*, we use *more* (always) and *most* (usually). So too with *afraid*. In cases of doubt this method is the safer.]

§ 190. In all other cases the adverbs *more* and *most* are used.

¹ In spelling, a long vowel sound is often represented by the letter being doubled e.g., *green*, *poor*, but all doubled vowels do not represent long sounds; e.g., *book*.

1 All adjectives with more than two syllables -*necessary, more necessary, most necessary; terrible, ignorant, etc.* (except negative compounds of words given above, *e.g. uncommon, unpleasant.*)

2. All adjectives ending in *-ful*, *e.g., dreadful, more dreadful, most dreadful; doubtful, useful, hopeful.*

3. Adjectives ending in *-ed* and *-ing*, mostly formed from verbs (participles, past and present); *pleased, more pleased, most pleased; tired, blessed, learned, gifted; charming, more charming, most charming; pleasing, alarming, tempting.*

but *wicked* (not a participle) has *wickedest*.

4. Adjectives of two syllables ending in hissing sounds, especially *-ish* and *-est*; *selfish, childish, slavish, greenish; honest, modest, curious, dubious, conscious, famous*; but *concisest, precisest* are found (the 2nd syllable stressed; cf § 188 above).

§ 191. Some adjectives have comparative and superlative forms that are not made regularly. The most important are:—

	Comparative	Superlative
good	better	best
well (I am well)	better	
bad, evil	worse	worst
ill (I am ill)	worse	worst
much }	more	most
many }		
little	less	least

Comparative Superlative

fore	former	foremost, first
hind	(hinder)	hindmost
far	farther	farthest
	further	furthest, furthestmost

NOTES (1) *Late*, besides the regular forms *later*, *latest*, used of time ("I am going by a later train"), has *latter*, *last* used of order in a series ("The *latter* part of the week"; "the *last* letter is Z.")

(2) *Old* besides the regular forms *older*, *oldest*, used generally, has *elder*, *eldest*, used of persons only, usually only of persons of the same family. (*Elder* is not used with *than*. We always say "He is older than I am.")

(3) *Next* is an alternative form of *nearest*; but while *nearest* refers to distance ("The nearest shop"), *next* denotes succession in time or position in a series ("The next boy is Rama").

** (4) There are also certain comparative and superlative forms that have no adjectival positives. having been formed from the adverbs or prepositions, *in*, *out*, *up* :—

inner	inmost, innermost ;
outer	outmost, outermost ;
	(utmost, uttermost) ;
upper	upmost uppermost

§ 192. The superlative form is sometimes used when there is no definite intention of comparing one person with another, as when a boy commences a letter "My *dearest* father". Here *dearest* is simply equivalent to "very dear", implying that the quality of dearness is present in a very high degree ; or perhaps in the highest possible degree, for it is possible that the father is being compared with all other persons.

Similarly "We received the warmest welcome", "You must use the clearest language", "We want the fullest information."

The usage, however, is rather more common with superlatives made by prefixing the adverb *most*. "This is most unfortunate", "He was most grateful", "He was a most honest man".

This may be called the **absolute superlative**.

**§ 193. Some descriptive adjectives express a quality which cannot exist in different degrees ; *e.g.*, *yearly*, *extinct*, *triangular*, *dead*, these strictly cannot have forms of comparison.

Sometimes, however, an expression like "These two are more equal than those" is loosely used to mean "more nearly equal". similarly "This is a more perfect picture than that", "My cup is the fullest". Compare also "Her hair is more golden than mine" (= "more like gold").

Some indefinite numerals can have degrees of comparison, *e.g.*, *few*, *many* ; but definite numerals and demonstratives cannot.

§ 194. Kinds of comparison :

(a) Hitherto we have dealt only with the **comparison of superiority**, a statement that one thing (or person) has more or a higher degree of, some quality than another.

He was uglier and more dishonest than his brother (was).

(b) There may be also the **comparison of inferiority**, which is expressed by means of the adverbs *less* (followed by *than*) and *least* :

He was *less ugly than* his brother (was).

He was *the least ugly of* the brothers.

This is a statement that one person has less or a lower degree of some quality than another.

(c) In such a sentence as

He *as strong as* you (were),

We have the **comparison of equality**, one person being said to have as much of a quality as another, *i.e.*, to have it in equal degree.

The comparison of inferiority is very often expressed by the negative of a comparison of equality :

He was *not as ugly as* his brother (was).

(d) In such sentences as

(i) *The more* (there are) *the merrier*
(they will be).

(ii) *The more* I see of him, *the less* I like him.

We have the **comparison of proportion**, *the ...the...* meaning "by how much ..by so much..." a statement that two things increase at the same rate.

EXERCISE 84

(a) Give the comparative and superlative forms (if there are any) of :—lonely, dry, wonderful, light, evil, sixty, past, heroic, old, merry, late, fourth, near, terrible, fore.

(b) Make up four sentences introducing the comparative or superlative forms of some of the adjectives mentioned above.

CHAPTER XXXIV

NOUNS REVISED AND SUMMARISED.

§ 195. A noun is a word used to name something ("things" including persons, qualities, actions, etc.). The chief work of a noun is to stand as the main word or only word in the subject of a sentence, or in the object of a transitive verb, or to stand in a phrase as the object of a preposition.

§ 196. Nouns are of two chief kinds : A. thing-nouns, and B. mass-nouns

A. Thing-nouns are names of things that can be counted ; things of which we can say that there are many or few.

1. A **proper noun** is the name given to one particular member of a class.

2. A **class-noun** is a name applicable to each and every member of a class.

It may be the name of (a) an individual thing ; *a soldier, a cow* ; or (b) a collection of such individuals : *a regiment, a herd* (**a collective noun**).

B. A mass-noun is a name given to something that exists in a mass, of which we can say that there is much or little, although we cannot count it ; *e.g., water, gold, sugar*.

It may be the name of (3) something material—**a material noun**—the name of a substance,

or (4) of something immaterial—an **abstract noun**—the name of a quality.

[The name common noun is sometimes given to class-nouns and also to material mass-nouns.]

§ 197. Thing-words may represent two or more things or persons and so may generally be used in the **plural** form as well as the **singular**—class-nouns nearly always, and proper nouns frequently.

The commonest plural inflexions are *-iz*, *-z*, and *-s* (spelt *-es* or *-s*). A few common words form the plural by vowel-change ; and some do not change at all.

Mass-words strictly used as such cannot be used in the plural ; but the same words, when used with certain changes of meaning, are sometimes used in the plural form.

§ 198. The names of males are said to be of masculine gender ; the names of females being feminine. Feminine gender is commonly shown by the suffix *-ess* ; but sometimes there are distinct words for the two sexes ; *e.g.*, *uncle*, *aunt* ; *cock*, *hen*. Otherwise the distinction is shown by making compounds such as *he-goat*, *maid-servant*, etc., or prefixing “male” or “female”.

§ 199. Case-relations are not expressed by inflected case-forms except for the genitive case, the singular form of which made by adding one of the sounds *-iz*, *-z*, or *-s* (spelt *'s*) to the nominative form ; the same method being applied to

plurals formed by vowel change or by the inflexion *-en* : *man*, *man's* ; *men*, *men's*.

Plurals formed by the sibilant inflexion (*-s* etc.) are unchanged in sound, but an apostrophe is written after the *-s* : *horses*, *horses'*.

§ 200. Instead of the genitive case-form of names of lifeless (and therefore sexless) things a case-phrase is commonly used, composed of the preposition *of* governing the noun as an object (in the accusative case) : "the wall of the garden". The case-phrase is sometimes used with names of animals and persons.

Similarly a dative case-phrase, formed by means of the preposition *to* (or *for*) is often used for the indirect object ; but a noun may be used as indirect object without any change of form. When used as object (in the accusative case-relation) it is used without any change of form from the nominative (the case for the subject) and without any preposition.

Other case-relations such as the instrumental, ablative, etc., can be expressed only by means of phrases including prepositions, *c.g.*, *with*, *by*, *from* etc.

See the declension in § 146.

CHAPTER XXXV

PRONOUNS REVISED AND SUMMARISED.

§ 201. **Pronouns** are words that indicate things (or persons) without naming them ; and it is generally true to say that a pronoun stands instead of a noun.

It is thus a noun-equivalent ; and its chief use is to prevent the needless repetition of nouns. Interrogative pronouns are used to ask questions which lead to the indication of things.

§ 202. There are two main classes, distinguishing or indicating pronouns and pronouns of quality and number.

A. **Indicating or distinguishing pronouns:—**

(1) **Personal**—with forms differing according to

(a) **person**—first, *I, me, we, us*, ; second, *you* ; and third, *he, him, she, her, it, they, them* ; showing whether the reference is to the persons speaking or spoken to, or to the persons or things spoken about ;

(b) **number**—singular, *I, me, you, he, him, she, her, it*, and plural, *we, us, you, they, them* ;

(c) **case**—nominative, *I, he, she, we, they* ; and objective (accusative

and dative) *me, him, her, us, them* ; (for genitive see below, "possessive").

- (d) **gender** (in the third person singular)
 —masc. (*he, him*), fem. (*she, her*)
 neut. (*it*), see the declension in
 § 142.

N.B. *One* may be called an indefinite personal pronoun.

(2) **Emphasizing**—based on the forms of the personal pronouns or possessive adjectives with corresponding differences for person and number—*myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves*.

(3) **Reflexive**—with the same forms as the emphasizing pronouns (distinguish from "Reciprocal Pronouns"; see below).

(4) **Possessive**—formed from or equivalent to the genitive case-forms of the personal pronouns, and having similar distinctions of person, number, and gender according to the possessor :—

	1st person	2nd person	3rd person	
Sing.	mine	yours	his	hers
Pl.	ours	yours	theirs	

(*My, your, her, its, our, their*, with *one's*, are classed as possessive adjectives, but they are pronominal adjectives and their forms also depend on the possessor.)

(5) **Demonstrative**—pointing out the thing or person referred to ; *this* and *that*, with the plural forms *there* and *those*, *such* and the *same*.

(6) **Interrogative**—by means of which questions (direct or indirect) are often asked. *Who* (nominative case), *whom* (objective), *which*, *what*, are thus used at the beginning of a question-sentence or question-clause. *Whose* may be regarded as the genitive case of *who* or perhaps better as an interrogative possessive adjective.

[They may be subdivided according as their aim is (a) identifying (*who*, *what*), (b) descriptive (*what*), or (c) selective (*which*).]

Emphatic forms compounded with *-ever* are also used.

(7) **Relative**—used to introduce a real or apparent subordinate (usually adjectival) clause, standing as a subject or object (of verb or preposition) in that clause, and connecting it with the main clause, and usually referring to an antecedent (expressed or understood) in the main clause. *Who* (nom.) *whom* (objective), *which*, *that*. *What* (=that which) introducing what is really a noun clause seems to contain its own antecedent.

[A distinction will also have to be made between (a) relatives introducing true subordinate (restrictive) clauses and (b) those introducing continuative clauses that are really co-ordinate in nature.]

Who, *which*, and *what* are also compounded with *-ever* and *-soever* to form **generalising** relatives.

Whose may be regarded as the genitive case of *who*, or perhaps better as a relative possessive adjective.

(8) *What* is occasionally used as an **exclamatory pronoun**, *i.e.*, to introduce an exclamation :

What I endured !

(Often however *what* may rather be considered an interjection : *e.g.*, "What ! are you still here ?").

(9) For **indefinite pronouns**, (*e.g.*, *one*, *any-one*) see below under "Pronouns of quantity and number".

B. Pronouns of Number and Quantity.

(1) **Number**—*both*, *either*, *neither*, *each*, *some*, *any*, *noone*, *none*, *everyone* ; and numerals.

(2) **Quantity**—*much*, *any*, *little*, *less*, *enough*, *some*.

Pronouns of number may be (a) **definite**, *e.g.*, *both*, and the numerals, or (b) **indefinite**, *e.g.*, *several*, *few*, *some*. Pronouns of quantity are usually indefinite.

Some **indefinite** pronouns have no reference to number : *e.g.*, "*One* can never be sure", "These sums are easy *ones*." "Did you see *any-one* ?" These may be called indefinite demonstratives to distinguish them from indefinite numerals.

"*Each other* and *one another* are called **reciprocal pronouns**.

CHAPTER XXXVI

ADJECTIVES REVISED AND SUMMARISED.

§ 203. An adjective is a word used along with a noun to describe, or point out or state the quantity or number of, the thing or things named by the noun.

The adjective qualifies the noun that it accompanies, limiting or defining its application, and thus making its meaning clearer.

Interrogative adjectives are used with nouns to ask questions which lead to the description, definition, enumeration, etc., of the things named, usually by means of other adjectives.

§ 204. An adjective may be used
(a) as an **epithet** (or attributively), being attached to a noun quite apart from the predicate : *e.g.*, "*a rich man*";
or (b) **predicatively**, forming part of a predicate, *i.e.*, as complement to a verb of incomplete predication : *e.g.*, "*he became rich*".

§ 205. There are three chief kinds of adjectives : (A) descriptive adjectives or adjectives of quality, (B) distinguishing or indicating adjectives, and (C) adjectives of quantity or number.

[Advanced pupils may perhaps observe that B and C really have much in common and both belong to a larger class which may be named "determinative**" or "defining" as distinct from "qualifying" or "descriptive". It is often not

easy to assign some adjectives one of the sub-classes B or C rather than the other. Many of these determinative words may be used either adjectivally or as pronouns (and are accordingly sometimes called pronominal adjectives).]

A. Descriptive adjectives or adjectives of quality—describing things or persons, and stating what qualities they have; e.g., “a *red* ball”, “a *big* house”, “a *kind* man”, “a *happy* life”; i.e., pointing out *what kind* of thing or person is named.

*Adjectives formed from proper nouns are sometimes called “proper adjectives”; e.g., “the *English* language”, “the *Indian* climate”, “the *Victorian* era”. (The first letter is usually written as a capital letter.)

*Participles, which are verbal—adjectives, also belong to this class: “a *dying* man”, “a *wounded* soldier”, “a *broken* cup”.

B. Indicating or distinguishing adjectives (or determinative)—helping to point out or distinguish *which* person or thing is meant.

1. **Demonstrative**—*this, that, such*, etc.

The **definite article** *the*, may be called a weak demonstrative.

2. **Possessive**—*my, your, her, its, our, their*; “*his* book is torn”. (Sometimes called “pronominal adjectives”).

3. **Emphasizing**—“*my own* horse”, “he risked his *very* life”.

4. **Interrogative**—*what, which*.

5. **Relative**—*what, which*. (Compound generalising forms with *-ever* and *-soever*.)

6. **Exclamatory**—*what*; e.g., “*what* villainy!”

7. **Distributive**—*each, every, either, neither.*

8. **Indefinite**—*some, any, one, a certain* (sing.) or *certain* (pl.) *e.g.* "you must take *some* kind of food."

These may be called indefinite demonstrative adjectives to distinguish them from indefinite numerals (see below, C. 2.). The **indefinite article**, *a* or *an*, comes under this head.

9. **Reciprocal**—*each other, one another.*

C. **Adjectives of quantity and number.**

1. **Quantitative**—applicable normally to mass-nouns (material and abstract nouns) showing *how much* there is of some substance, etc. *i.e.*, referring to bulk, amount or quantity, *much, little.*

2. **Numeral**—applicable to class-nouns, showing *how many* there are of things that can be counted,

(a) **Definite**—(i) **Cardinal numerals**—*one, two, three.....*

(ii) **Multiplicatives**—*double, triple, sixfold.....*

(iii) **Ordinals**—*first, second, fifth,* are rather to be classed as distinguishing, *i.e.*, demonstrative adjectives, since they point out where something comes in a series.

(b) **Indefinite**—*many, few, several,* (cf. B. 8. above). For distributive adjectives see above B. 8.

§ 206. Except *this* and *that* (which have the plural forms *these* and *those*) adjectives are not inflected according to the number, gender, or case of the nouns that they qualify, but many descriptive adjectives and a few indefinite adjectives of number and quantity are inflected or have suffixes added for purposes of comparison.

(1) Comparison of superiority—for the comparative and superlative forms

(a) the syllables *-er* and *-est* are added to the positive form of adjectives

(i) of one syllable ; *hot, hotter, hottest*.

(ii) of two syllables of which the second is a vowel sound— *-y* or *-ow* or a weak *-le* or *-er* : *happy, happier, happiest* ; *able, abler, ablest*, and a few others.

(b) The adverbs *more* and *most* are used before the positive form of most others, especially those of more than two syllables.

The comparison is usually completed

(a) by a phrase or clause introduced by *than* for the comparative form for a comparison of two things or sets of things : "He is taller than I(am)"

(b) by (i) a phrase introduced by *in* or *of* (or some other preposition) ; "the fattest *in* (or *of*) the herd";

(ii) a clause introduced by *that* : "the longest that I have seen" for the

superlative form for a comparison of more than two things.

(2) Comparison of inferiority the adverbs *less* and *least* are prefixed.

(3) Comparison of equality by means of *as... as*; "He is *as* strong *as* you (are)".

Several adjectives have irregular comparative and superlative forms.

CHAPTER XXXVII

VERBS—A. THEIR USES, MEANINGS, AND KINDS.

§ 207. We have seen that usually the predicate of a sentence contains a verb, with or without one or more other parts of speech, and that the verb is the chief part of the predicate.

§ 208. We have also seen (§ 20, Ch. VII) that a verb may give **full meaning** by itself, "The baby is sleeping", although an adverb ("peacefully") or an adverbial phrase ("in a cradle") may be added as an extension of the predicate to give further information.

§ 209. There are, however, **verbs of incomplete predication**, which require other words, such as nouns or adjectives, to be used **predicatively**

with them as **complements** to make their meaning complete; *e.g.*, "He *became king*, but he never *became happy*".

[Such verbs, especially *is, are, was, were*, are sometimes called **copulative, because they hardly do more than couple or act as a link between the subject and the predicative noun or adjective; but this term is unnecessary and is not recommended.

§ 210. Verbs used **transitively** require an object to complete the predication, *e.g.*, 'I like Rama', 'I killed two birds'; whereas verbs used **intransitively** give a full meaning without an object: "I was sleeping". If the action of a verb affects some person or thing other than the doer of the action it is used transitively.* (See Chapter VIII, § 23).

§ 211. "The headmaster has appointed Rama captain."

By observing such sentences as this we find that certain transitive verbs, such as *make* and those with similar meanings, *e.g.*, *appoint, elect*, etc., (sometimes called factitive verbs)¹ are sometimes used in such a way as to require a complement as well as an object to complete the predication.

They made Alfred king.

Here the direct object is *Alfred, king* being an **objective complement**, standing in the accusa-

* An adequate definition of a transitive verb is not possible, but this will suffice for the present.

¹ This term is unnecessary and its discontinuance is recommended by the Committee on Terminology.

tive case, agreeing with *Alfred*, and telling us *what* they made Alfred.

[*N.B.* The word used predicatively with an intransitive verb of incomplete predication is a **subjective complement**: *e.g.*, 'He became *king* in 871', where *king* agrees with the subject *he*, in the nominative case.]

EXERCISE 85

Say whether the verbs in the following sentences are used transitively or intransitively, and whether they have any objects or complements:—(1) The town welcomed him. (2) The town gave him a warm welcome. (3) He seemed very happy. (4) He was elected president. (5) Who elected him president? (6) Will you kindly move your chair? (7) The earth moves round the Sun. (8) He went in side. (9) The king died a year ago. (10) My cousin has become a teacher.

****§ 212.** He lived a useful *life*, and he died a happy *death*.

He has fought a good *fight*,

He smiled a cunning *smile*.

I dreamed an unpleasant *dream*.

Sometimes intransitive verbs are followed by nouns of kindred (cognate) meaning which indicate the effect of the action, so that in these particular cases the verbs seem to be used transitively. There is however only one kind of object that such a verb can have, and it is more or less implied in the verb itself. The object is called a **cognate object** or an **inner object**.

In the examples quoted above, the cognate object is a noun similar in form as well as meaning to the verb.

The cognate object however, may be similar in meaning, but not in form ; *e.g.*, "He ran a good *race*", "They fought a fierce *battle*", "I groped my *way*".

Sometimes only an adjective is used, qualifying a cognate noun understood :—*e.g.*, "He cried his loudest" (*i.e.*, his loudest cry),¹ "he fought his best", (*i.e.*, his best fight).

Again in such an expression as "He nodded his consent" (*i.e.*, a nod of consent), the cognate object has to be understood. Again in "You must run *it* (=the course) out to the end", "They fought *it* (*i.e.*, the fight) out manfully", we have the vague, impersonal use of a pronoun instead of the cognate noun-object.

**§ 213.

Beautiful flowers <i>grow</i> on this tree	They <i>grow</i> beautiful roses in their garden.
The bell <i>is ringing</i>	The teacher <i>is ringing</i> a bell.
The water <i>boiled</i> quickly	He <i>boiled</i> some water.

The verbs in the first column are used intransitively, those in the second column transitively. The latter, however, have a different meaning. "They grow roses" means "They make roses grow", *i.e.*, "They cause roses to grow", and such verbs are sometimes named **causative verbs**. But the name is of little importance ; for there is nothing in the form of the words to indicate their causative nature, and if the idea of causation is distinctly in the speaker's mind and is

¹ But here and in "He walked a long way" we have almost an adverbial phrase.

being deliberately expressed, he uses the verb *make* or *cause* : "You cannot *make* a horse drink if he is not thirsty".

[In a few pairs of verbs, intransitive and transitive, there is an internal vowel-change which is the result of an original difference of form which denoted causation : *rise, raise* ; *lie, lay* ; *sit, set*. "Trees *fall* every year. Wood-cutters *fell* trees every day."]

**EXERCISE 86

Are the following verbs used transitively or intransitively ? Point out the objects where there are any. State which of them are "cognate" objects. (1) That man will die a violent death. (2) We have burnt all the wood. (3) The wood burnt very quickly. (4) Hari is flying a kite. (5) He laughed a hearty laugh. (6) My coat has worn very well.

**§ 214. In the sentences "He *was laughing*," "I *was waiting* at the station" the verbs are used intransitively ; but in such sentences as "He *was laughing at* me," "I *was waiting for* him," it is sometimes felt that the verb and the preposition are attached so closely that together they make up a compound or a "group-verb," (was laughing at, was waiting for) which is used transitively with an object, (*me, him*).

[In fact a simple transitive verb like *await* can often be used instead of the group *wait for*, e.g., "we *arrived at* the station," "we *reached* the station" ; we *talked about* the affair," "we *discussed* it."

A good test is to see whether the expression can be turned into the passive form suitably. We can say "I am being waited for," "He was much talked about" ; "This conclusion was arrived at" when we are dealing with a transitive group-verb ; but we cannot say "The field was stood round by many boys" instead of "many boys were standing round the field", where we clearly have an intransitive verb followed by an adverbial phrase introduced by a preposition.]

But "it is generally advisable to treat the verb as used intransitively" and to take the preposition with the noun that follows as an adverbial phrase.

Parse, "*He was laughing at me*".

Was laughing—verb, intransitive. *At me*—adverbial phrase, modifying the verb "was laughing", consisting of a preposition, *at*, governing the pronoun *me* in the accusative (or objective) case.

§ 215. (1) I *kicked* a dog.

(2) I *was kicked* by a horse.

Sentence (1) states that I did something, that I performed an action. Sentence (2) states that I suffered something, or was acted upon ; that an action was performed on me.

In other words in sentence (1) I am active, and the verb is said to be in the **active voice**.

In sentence (2) I am passive, something is done to me, I am acted upon ; and the verb is in the **passive voice**.

N.B. Intransitive verbs are not used in the passive voice (unless they take a cognate object).

DEFINITIONS.—The **voice** of a verb is the form by which a transitive verb shows whether the person or thing named by the subject of the sentence acts or is acted upon, *i.e.*, is active or passive, does or suffers some action.

The **active voice** of a verb is the form that it takes when the action is done *by* the person or

thing denoted by the subject ; (no matter whether the verb has an object or not).

The **passive voice** of a transitive verb is the form that it takes when the action is done *to* the person or thing denoted by the subject.

N.B. The same event may be related in two different ways :

(a) A horse kicked me.

(b) I was kicked by a horse.

The same thing has happened, but the statement is made from different points of view. The object of the active verb in sentence (a) becomes (with a suitable change of form) the subject of the passive verb in sentence (b).

Unless a verb can take a direct object (or a cognate object) it cannot be used passively.

At first the forms of active verbs only will be considered.

EXERCISE 87

Are the following verbs active or passive ? (1) He was swimming, (2) He was beaten, (3) I have had toothache, (4) You have been disturbed, (5) I have been to Calcutta, (6) They were laughing.

EXERCISE 88

Write 3 sentences with active verbs and 3 with passive verbs.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

VERBS—B. PERSON, NUMBER AND TENSE.

§ 216. I *rise* early every morning.

He *rises* early every morning.

Different forms of the verb are used in these sentences. Why? One verb is used with a pronoun subject in the first person; the other is used with a subject in the third person. The additional syllable in the latter verb shows that its subject is a pronoun in the third person, or a noun (always regarded as of the third person).

Here the form for the second person—*you rise*—is that for the first. But in the following examples there are three different forms for the three persons.

I am writing, you are writing, he is writing.

EXERCISE 89

Make up sentences in which the following verbs are used in a different (1) voice, (2) person, (3) number :—(a) I see, (b) You will be hurt.

§217. I am writing.

We are writing

He is writing.

They are writing

He rises early

They rise early

We have previously studied the inflections of nouns according to number and we see that verbs too are inflected or not according as their subjects are singular or plural.

We see then that the verb of the predicate may be inflected according to the person and number of its subject, and it is said to agree with its subject in person and number,

Further details of these inflexions will be observed when we study different forms of the verb.

§ 218. (1) I *am* writing. (2) I *was* writing. (3) I *shall be* writing. All these verbs are of the same person and number. But they have different forms. Why? These differences of form show us that the actions are spoken of as taking place at different times—namely, (1) in the **present**, “now”, (2) in the **past**, before the present, (3) in the **future**, after the present. Similarly (1) *I write poems*, (2) *I wrote poems*, (3) *I shall write poems*, refer respectively to (1) the present, (2) the past, and (3) the future. These differences are called differences of **tense**. A verb has different tenses which indicate the time of an occurrence; *viz.*, **present**, **past**, and **future**.

§ 219. (a) I was writing. (b) I had written. (c) I wrote. These verbs all refer to past time (and are of the same person and number). Why then are the forms different?

The form (a) *I was writing* shows that the action referred to was **continuous** as well as in past time, and the tense is called the **past continuous tense**. The action is spoken of as going on for some time and was not merely momentary; as it might have been if the form had been *I wrote*. At the moment to which I am referring, the action was still going on and was not finished; and so the tense is sometimes called “past imperfect” instead of continuous.

The form (b) *I had written* shows that the action not only occurred in past time, but also was already finished before some time in the past (which has already been mentioned or is understood). The tense is therefore called the **past perfect tense**, (**perfect** meaning "finished" or "completed").

The past perfect tense is usually found in the main clause of a complex sentence : "when I arrived, the man had gone" ; the adverbial subordinate clause giving the time before which the main action was performed ; or the predicate of a simple sentence with an adverbial phrase giving the time before which the action occurred : "I had arrived before his death". Two actions are referred to, both in the past ; but one action was complete before the other action occurred.

Different tenses thus indicate the **completeness** or incompleteness of actions as well as their times ; and also, as the next examples will make more clear, the **continuance** or duration of the actions.

The form (c) *I wrote* by itself does not imply that the action was either finished or unfinished ; it simply states the action as being one in past time, and the tense is therefore called simply the **past tense** [or preterite] or more particularly the **past indefinite tense**. The exact reference of this tense is only made definite by the context.

This indefinite past tense has two distinct uses :

(i) For **habitual** or repeated actions in the past : "Scott wrote poems before he wrote novels," "I wrote letters every morning," *i.e.*, ("used to write, was in the habit of writing."). In

some ways this past **habitual** tense is similar to the past continuous tense, but the reference to time is indefinite rather than definite, and the reference is to repeated actions rather than to a continued action that was not completed (imperfect) at that time. The use of the past tense implies that the habit which existed in the past is not now in existence; "I do not *now* write letters every morning.

(ii) For a single action which took place at some time in the past : *i.e.* "I wrote to him"; the actual point of time being made definite by an adverbial extension of the predicate : *e.g.*, "I wrote to him a week ago" (or "...when I heard the news"). This tense, which is commonly used in stories and historical narratives, has been called the **historic past tense**. It might also be called the simple past. [It has also been called the preterite.)

§ 220. Similarly with

(a) I am writing (b) I have written (c) I write.

These verbs all refer to present time. The form (a) *I am writing* shows that the action is continuous and not momentary, as well as in present time; the tense is therefore **present continuous**, or present imperfect or progressive. It implies that the action is not only going on at the present moment (the moment of speaking), but also will continue beyond the present moment, (and probably started before the present

moment). [It may also refer to the immediate future as we shall see presently : "we are going to Calcutta to-morrow," "we are playing again next week."]

The form (b) *I have written* shows that at the present moment my writing is already finished; the action is now completed. It is therefore the **present perfect** tense.

NOTE. This is a present tense because it expresses a *present* condition, though it may be the result of some past action.

The form (c) *I write* is the **present indefinite** tense, or simple **present** tense. Its reference to present time is usually only vague, and it usually does not imply either the completeness or incompleteness of the action.

(i) The chief use of the present indefinite tense is as a **present habitual** tense. It is used for habitual actions if the habit is still in existence at the present time : "I rise at dawn every morning". (The actions themselves are not confined to the present ; otherwise there would be no habit.) Thus "I eat fish and rice" means "I am in the habit of eating fish and rice"; it does not mean that I am at the present time actually engaged in eating. It would be quite correct for me to write "I speak English very well", even when I am not actually speaking at all.

Similar to this is the use of the present indefinite tense for the statement of general truths (about the nature of things) that hold good of all

time : *e.g.*, "Nothing happens without a cause"; "Leopards are fierce and active beasts."

(*ii*) The simple present is very rarely used to denote single momentary actions that occur at the moment of speaking, because such actions rarely occur except when one person is by example showing another how to do something, the words being accompanied by the actions.

A chemistry teacher, for example, is showing an experiment, "I put this mixture in a strong jar I apply a light to it. It explodes". This tense is often used of present actions by Indian students when it is not suitable.¹ The answer to a question "What are you doing?" Should be 'I am writing my lesson', *not* "I write my lesson".

In the case of certain transitive verbs of perception, and a few others expressing a condition (especially a state of mind) rather than an action the simple present indefinite form is used to indicate simple action in the present where normally other verbs would have the present continuous form :—"I hear the sound of thunder", "I feel very cold", "I see some dark clouds", "I hope

¹ Examples of this can be found in English "Readers" that are used in Indian Schools ("He tames a small bird", 'See. Ahmed comes to school"). This is often the fault of grammars, written even by English scholars who ought to have known better, where "I write" is given as the simple *form*, and illustrated by unidiomatic sentences such as "The boy strikes the dog", "The child sleeps; you will wake him", "The tree falls", "The kettle boils", which are not now used (except in poetry) by any Englishman, educated or uneducated, and are not therefore good modern English (except in a few expressions like "There goes a man who has lost a fortune", "Here comes the postman with our parcel").

that you are coming", "I think that it will rain", "this bowl contains water", not "I am hearing". etc., although the reference is to an action in present time or a condition which is not momentary.

NOTE 1. The present indefinite is also used for the future when it is implied that the future action is a certainty or is something for which definite arrangements have been made : - "The Viceroy leaves Delhi next week."

NOTE 2. In narrative poetry and stories of exciting events the simple present is sometimes used for the sake of vividness where the "Historic Past" would be normal. This is called the "**historic present**" tense.

NOTE 3. There are also certain uses of the simple present form in subordinate clauses, which will be treated later.

There are similar distinctions for future time. "I shall be writing"—future continuous (imperfect) ; "I shall have written"—future perfect (of action that will be completed by a certain time in the future) ; "I shall write"—indefinite future (habitual, as in "I shall write my letters every morning", or simple future, as in "I shall write to you when I arrive", the time only being made definite by an adverbial expression.

[NOTE. The present continuous is also used for the immediate future and the present indefinite for the settled future. See above § 20 (a) and note 1.]

EXERCISE 90

Name the tenses of the verbs in the following sentences —
 (1) My father is eating his meal. (2) I go to school at 9 o'clock. (3) I fell off my bicycle. (4) I shall pass easily. (5) The Commissioner came here yesterday. (6) I have finished my lessons. (7) I was playing in the field before school-time. (8) I shall have written the letter before six o'clock. (9) The moon had risen before midnight. (10) He

took a walk every morning. (11) I shall be playing football this evening. (12) We shall live in London. (13) He writes very neatly. (14) My uncle died last week. (15) A man was riding along the road. (16) My uncle's coming here to day. (17) We're going to Calcutta. (18) I've broken my pen. (19) He's had fever.

§ 221. This normal scheme of the principal tenses may be tabulated thus :

	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Future</i>
<i>Indefinite</i> (i) Habitual, or (ii) Simple	I write	I wrote	I shall write
<i>Continuous</i>	I am writing	I was writing	I shall be writing
<i>Perfect</i>	I have written	I had written	I shall have written

§ 222. Each of the time-tenses then has three forms, (a) **continuous**,¹ (b) **perfect**, and (c) **indefinite**,² according as the action is

(a) in progress and unfinished at some point of time in the

(i) present—"I am writing"—**present continuous**,¹

(ii) past—"I was writing"—**past continuous**,¹

(iii) future—"I shall be writing"—**future continuous**;¹

(b) already completed at some point of time in the

(i) present—"I have written"—**present perfect**,

¹ Also called **imperfect** (descriptive imperfect), or **progressive**. [A new name is "the expanded tense".]

- (*ii*) past—"I had written"—**past perfect**.
 (*iii*) future—"I shall have written"—**future perfect** ;

(*c*) (1) habitual or repeated or (2) momentary or simply stated as an occurrence, in the

- (*i*) present—"I write"—**present indefinite**,²
 (*ii*) past—"I wrote"—**past indefinite**,²
 (*iii*) future—"I shall"—**future indefinite**.

****§ 223.** There is also a fourth form, (*d*) **perfect continuous**, for a continuous action that is regarded as being completed by some point of time in the

- (*i*) present—"I have been writing"—**present perfect continuous**,
 (*ii*) past—"I had been writing"—**past perfect continuous**,
 (*iii*) future—"I shall have been writing"—**future perfect continuous**.

Here the ideas of continuous action and completion are combined. The tense depends on the time of the completion, and is present, past, or future according as the moment of completion is (*i*) at or just before the time of speaking, or (*ii*) before that time, or (*iii*) after it. The present perfect continuous tense, "I have been writing", is used for a continuous action that has been going on for some time but is completed by (*i.e.*, just before) the moment of speaking. The past perfect continuous is used if the continuous action was completed by some time in the past mentioned in an adverbial clause or phrase, or

² Also called simple or (for the past at least) historic.

implied ; "I had been writing for two hours when he came"; "I had been writing up to midnight".

§ 224. In actual speech, contracted forms are in common use in several tenses ; *e.g.* present continuous, "*I'm* writing"; present perfect, "*I've* written"; past perfect, "*I'd* written"; future indefinite, "*he'll* write". The full forms are used chiefly in writing or in very formal speech or to make **emphatic** assertions, usually in reply to denials. (Rama says to Hari, "I've given my book to Abdul." Hari denies this, "You have'nt." Rama wishes to make his previous affirmative statement more emphatic, and says, 'I *have* given him my book", pronouncing the word *have* fully and forcibly, *i.e.*, emphatically.)

NOTE 1. In the future tenses *will* suffers contraction, but not *shall*.

NOTE 2. These elided or contracted forms are not in any way vulgar. They are used in the speech of educated people.

§ 225. There is also a composite and complex tense called the **future in the past, normally used in reporting what was said or thought (indirect speech).

(1) Hari says that *he will write* to me.

(2) Hari said that *he would write* to me.

If we think what words were actually used by Hari we shall find that they were "I will write". Why then is there a different tense in the two sentences ? If Hari used these words on Sunday (the first of May), and I at once turn round and tell Hari's father, who is on the spot, I say "Hari

says that *he will write*". speaking from the point of view of the present about a time after the present. But if I meet Hari's brother on Saturday (the 7th of May), and Hari has by that time not written to me, I should say "Hari said that *he would write*" speaking from the point of view of the past time (the 1st of May), when Hari was speaking, about a time after that past time, *i.e.*, future to the past time.

Thus the **future in the past** refers to an action that is future in relation to the past, an action thought of as about to take place after some point of time in the past. whereas the simple future refers to an action that is future in relation to the present, an action thought of as about to take place after the present.

The example above is an instance of (a) the **indefinite future in the past**, referring either to a contemplated single act or to repeated (habitual) actions of writing in the future.

There may also be (b) the **future continuous in the past**, referring from the point of view of a past time to a continuous action contemplated (in past time) as about to be going on after that past time : "He said ~~that~~ he would be working"; and (c) **future perfect in the past** referring from the point of view of a past time to an action contemplated (in past time) as already completed at some time after that past time : "Hari said he would have written his book by June."

N.B. *Would* commonly suffers contraction in speech when used after a pronoun, but not *should*.

§ 225. This extended scheme of tenses may be tabulated thus :

	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Future</i>	<i>Future in the Past</i>
<i>Indefinite</i> (i. <i>Habitual</i> , or ii. <i>Simple</i> .)	I write	I wrote	I shall write	I should write
<i>Continuous</i> [<i>Imperfect</i>]	I am writing	I was writing	I shall be writing	I should be writing
<i>Perfect</i>	I have written	I had written	I shall have written	I should have written
<i>Perfect Continuous</i>	I have been writing	I had been writing	I shall have been writing	I should have been writing

§ 226. We see that the different tenses are distinguished by their having different forms (in addition to the changes of form which indicate the person and number of the subject). The form of the past indefinite, *I wrote*, differs from that of the present indefinite, *I write*.

In this example the difference is made by a change in the internal vowel and such a verb is called a **strong verb**. Compare also *I run*, *I ran*; *I eat*, *I ate*.

In other verbs the difference is made by the addition of a sound (*t*, *d*, or *ed*) at the end of the word, e.g., *I weep*, *I wept*; *I walk*, *I walked*; *I want*, *I wanted*; *I fish*, *I fished*. Such verbs are called **weak verbs**. In other words the past indefinite tense is formed by means of inflexional changes; and these are **simple tense-forms**.

Other tenses, however, are formed by the help of additional words such as *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *have*, *had*, *shall*, *will*, and combinations of *shall* or *will* with *be* and *have*. These helping words are called **auxiliary verbs** in contrast to the verbs of full meaning to which they are attached; and the tense-forms thus made are called **compound tense-forms**.

As thus used, the auxiliaries have no full meaning of their own and merely do the work of inflexions.

In the perfect tense there is also a distinction in form between a weak verb and strong verb corresponding to that in the past indefinite tense. *I have written, run, eaten* are strong forms. *I have walked, wanted, fished* are weak.

N.B. 1. The future tenses use the auxiliary *shall* or *will*.

2. The continuous tenses use some parts of the auxiliary verb *to be* : *I am*, he *is*, they *are*, he *was*, you *were*.

3. The perfect tenses use some parts of the auxiliary verb *to have* : *I have*, he *has*, they *have* ; *I had*.

4. Two or even more of these auxiliaries may be combined as in the future continuous and future perfect ; or in the perfect continuous tenses. All three are used in the future perfect continuous forms.

5. It is in these auxiliaries that the shortening takes place for the contracted forms, "I'm coming," "The dog's bitten me," "The postman's here," etc. Its vowel being elided or omitted, the auxiliary is joined to the subject word.

NOTE 1. On a second reading pupils who have studied the infinite parts of the verb will see that,

(a) for the continuous tenses, the **present (or imperfect) participle** ending in *-ing* is used along with a suitable tense-form of the auxiliary *to be* ;

(b) for the perfect tenses, the **past participle** (usually ending in *-t*, *-ed*, or *-en*) is used along with a suitable tense form of the auxiliary *to have* these participles being really verbal-adjectives).

(c) The part of the verb of full meaning that is put along with the auxiliaries *shall* or *will* for the future tense is the **infinitive** form, which is really a verb-noun. Its form is usually the same as that of the simple present (indefinite) tense 1st person).

****NOTE 2.** In the compound tense-forms (a) the idea of time is given by the tenses of the auxiliaries : *I am*, *I have*—present ; *I was*, *I had*—past, *I shall be*, *I shall have*—future ; [*I should*—past tense of *I shall*] ; (b) the idea of completeness or incompleteness is given by the choice of participles : (i) the imperfect, or so-called present, participle, *writing*, for the continuous or imperfect tense ; (ii) the past participle *written*, for the perfect tense.

EXERCISE 91.

Name the tenses of the verbs italicised :—(1) I thought that I *should have finished* my work by five o'clock. (2) He promised that he *would come*. (3) He will *have been sleeping* until now. (4) I *had been fasting* until the doctor came. (5) He said that he *would be playing* tennis at five o'clock. (6) I *shall have been walking* for four hours when I arrive.

§ 227. We can now give the conjugation of an active verb, *i.e.*, a statement of the different tense-forms for the different persons and numbers. The conjugation of an active weak verb is given in full. See the table appended.

TENSES OF AN ACTIVE WEAK VERB

Number and person.		Indefinite.	Imperfect continuous	Number and person.	Perfect.	Perfect continuous.
PRESENT	Sin. 1	I walk	*am walking	Sin. 1	*I have walked	*have been walking
	2	You walk (Thou walkest)	*are walking (art walking)	2	*You have walked (Thou hast walked)	*have been walking (hast been walking)
	"			"	"	"
	3	He walks	*is walking	3	*He has walked	*has been walking
	Pl. 1	We	*are walking	Pl. 1	*We	*have been walking
	2	You		2	*You	
	3	They		3	*They	
					have walked	
PAST	S. 1	I walked	was walking	S. 1	*I had walked	*had been walking
	2	You walked (Thou walkedst)	were walking (wast walking)	2	*You had walked (Thou hadst walked)	*had been walking (hadst been walking)
	"			"	"	"
	3	He walked	was walking	3	*he had walked	*had been walking
	Pl. 1	We	were walking	Pl. 1	*We	*had been walking
	2	You		2	*You	
	3	They		3	*They	
					had walked	

FUTURE			FUTURE IN PAST		
S.	1 I shall walk	shall be walking	S.	1 I should walk	should be walking
2 You *will walk (Thou wilt walk)	*will be walking (wilt be walking)		2 *You would walk (Thou wouldst walk)	*would be walking (wouldst be walking)	
3 He *will walk	*will be walking		3 *He would walk	*would be walking	
Pl.	1 We shall walk	shall be walking	Pl.	1 We should walk	should be walking
2 *You } will walk			2 *You } would walk		
3 *They }			3 *They }		
FUTURE			FUTURE IN PAST		
S.	1 I shall walk	shall be walking	S.	1 I should walk	should be walking
2 You *will walk (Thou wilt walk)	*will be walking (wilt be walking)		2 *You would walk (Thou wouldst walk)	*would be walking (wouldst be walking)	
3 He *will walk	*will be walking		3 *He would walk	*would be walking	
Pl.	1 We shall walk	shall be walking	Pl.	1 We should walk	should be walking
2 *You } will walk			2 *You } would walk		
3 *They }			3 *They }		

* Forms marked with an asterisk are also commonly used in speech in contracted forms, "I'm walking", "I've walked", "I'd walked", "You'll walk", "You'd walk", "You'd walk" etc.

NOTE. The whole of the table (pp. 240-241) need not at this stage be committed to memory *as a whole* ; but after the auxiliary verbs and the finite parts of the verb have been studied a pupil will have little difficulty in grasping the scheme as a whole.

§ 228. A similar full table for a strong verb can be made from the table of tenses in § 225 where only the first person singular forms are given. The formation of the other persons is given below.

N.B. 1. In modern English speech and prose writing the form of the 2nd pers plural is normally used for the singular : *you walk, you write* ; the old singular form with *thou* being found only in poetry and prayers. The regular inflexion for the old 2nd pers. singular was *-(e)st*.

2. The plural form is the same for all persons in every tense but the future, to which special attention must be paid.

Present Indefinite—The plural forms (and so the 2nd singular) are the same as the 1st pers. sing. : *we walk, we write*.

The form of the 3rd pers. sing. is inflected by the addition of the sounds *-s*, *-z*, or *-iz*, which are represented in writing by the letters *-s* or *-es*.

If the form for the 1st person ends in	the form for the 3rd pers. sing. is made by adding	EXAMPLES.		
	in pronunciation (sounds)	in spelling (letters)	1st pers.	3rd pers.
(a) a sibilant consonant sound : <i>c, g, s, z, sh, ch, j.</i>	the syllable <i>-iz.</i>	- <i>es</i> , or - <i>s</i> after an <i>-e</i> that is not pronounced.	pass promiset induce† freezet finish search change†	passes promises induces freezes finishes searches changes
(b) any other voiceless consonant : <i>c, g, p, t, k, f.</i>	the voiceless consonant <i>-s.</i>		hit write† take† sleep	hits writes takes sleeps
(c) any other sound ; (i) vowels. (ii) other voiced consonants : <i>c, g, b, d, g, v.</i>	the voiced consonant <i>-z.</i>	- <i>s</i> sometimes preceded by <i>-e</i> (when the last vowel is <i>o</i> or <i>y</i> after a consonant, the <i>y</i> being changed to <i>i</i>).	(i) see lie go pay follow try dig bend livet (ii)	sees lies goes pays follows tries digs bends lives

† In these cases the final *e* of the spelling is silent, *i.e.*, unpronounced, so that the final *sound* is a consonant.

[**NOTE. Sometimes in old literature an old inflexion *-eth* is found for the 3rd. pers. sing. *e.g.*, *he loveth.*]

EXERCISE 92

Give the 3rd person singular forms of :—amuse, place, kiss, dash, put, do, play, cry, find, sew, fly, grow. (Present tense.)

Past Indefinite. All the persons, sing. and plural (except the old 2nd pers. sing.) have the same form

The **continuous** tenses—present and past—are made by adding the participle ending in *-ing* to the present and past tense forms of the auxiliary verb *to be*.

	<i>Full forms.</i>			<i>Contracted forms.</i>	
Present	I am	We	} are	I'm	We're
	You are	You		You're	You're
	(Thou art)	They		(Thou'rt)	They're
	He is			He's	
Past.	I was	We	} were		
	You were	You			
	(Thou wast)	They			
	He was				

The **perfect** tenses, present and past, are formed by adding the past participle to the present and past tenses of the auxiliary verb *to have*.

	<i>Full forms.</i>			<i>Contracted forms-</i>	
Present.	I have	We	} have	I 've	We 've
	You have	You		You 've	You ve
	(Thou hast)			He 's	They 've
	He has	They			
	(He hath)				
Past.	I had	We	} had	I 'd	We 'd
	You had	You		You 'd	You 'd
	(Thou hadst)			He 'd	They 'd
	He had	They			

§ 229. For the **future** tense two auxiliaries are used—*shall* and *will*—which are simple in themselves, having the same form for all persons and numbers (except for the obsolete 2nd person singular, *thou shalt*, *thou wilt*).

Normally, for the mere statement of an action taking place in future time (quite apart from the intention or wish or resolve of the speaker) *shall* is used for the 1st person, *will* for the 2nd and 3rd persons, singular and plural,

If we do not hurry we *shall* miss the train.

If you (*or they*) do not go, you (*or they*) *will* be late for school.

Departure from this custom usually implies not merely that an act will as a matter of fact take place in the future, but that the speaker is willing or determined that it shall take place; *i.e.*, it refers to the speaker's state of mind.

§ 230. Such usages can only be indicated briefly at this stage. *Will* in the 1st person, and

shall in the 2nd or 3rd persons, may express either the intention or the willingness of the speaker ; *e.g.*, "I will lend you some money, if you promise to repay me" (...am willing to lend) ; "You shall have a holiday to-morrow if you behave well" (*i.e.*, a promise) , "He shall be fined a rupee as a punishment".

N.B. *Will* in speech suffers contraction in whatever person it is used ; "I'll lend you some money", "You'll be late".

§ 231. The past tenses of *shall* and *will* are *should* and *would* also remaining the same in form for all persons (except the old 2nd pers. sing., *thou shoud'st*, *would'st*). These are used for the future in the past.

Shall and *will* are also used to make the future of the auxiliaries *to be* and *to have*, as of other verbs. "I shall be there in the morning", "He'll have fever to-morrow".

Shall is generally used to ask questions in the 1st person ; *e.g.*, 'Shall I come to-morrow ?' In the 2nd and 3rd persons *will* is most commonly used ('Will you give me a rupee'), but *shall* may be used if there is a reference to the will of the person addressed ; *e.g.*, "Shall he bring you a chair ?" ("Shall you go by motor-car?")

EXERCISE 93

Put in *shall* or *will*, whichever is correct, in the blanks in the following sentences. Give also contracted forms wherever they are possible :—(1) As you are not good, I have

decided that you—not have a prize. (2) If you like I—go to Calcutta to-morrow. (3) They—run a great danger. (4) You—not escape. I will see to that. (5) —I give you any money ?

CHAPTER XXXIX

VERBS—C. NEGATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE FORMS.

§ 232. A **negative statement** is made by means of the negative adverb *not*. In the compound tenses *not* is placed after the auxiliary and before the participle or infinitive : “I was not laughing”, “I have not done my work”, “They will not come”.

For the simple present and past another auxiliary verb is used—*do* (*does* 3rd sing.) for the present, *did* for the past indefinite—followed, as above, by *not* : “I do not go to school”, “He does not like me”, “You do not write well”; “I did not go to Calcutta”, “You did not come in time”, “He did not run fast enough”.

	<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
Present.	I do not write	We	} do not write
	You do not write	You	
	(Thou dost not write) ¹	They	
	He does not write		
	(He doth not write) ¹		
Past.	I did not write	We	} did not write
	You did not write	You	
	(Thou didst not write) ¹	They	
	He did not write		

¹ Obsolete forms.

N.B. In speech *not* is commonly contracted by the omission of the vowel and pronounced along with the auxiliary

In writing this omission of the vowel is marked by an apostrophe.

By this contraction two syllables are often reduced to one, *e.g.*, *do not. don't*, *were not, weren't*; and there is sometimes a change in the vowel sound of the principal verb, *e.g.*, *do* (pron. *du* or *doo*), *don't* (*o* pronounced as in *go*), or the loss of a consonant sound, *e.g.*, *shall not. shan't*; or both, *e.g.*, *will not, won't*.

But sometimes the change does not mean the dropping of a syllable; *e.g.*, *was not, wasn't* (pron. *wozent*); *is not, isn't*; *does not, doesn't* (pron. *duzent*); *did not, didn't* (pron. *dident*); *have not, haven't*; *has not, hasn't*; *should, shouldn't* (pron. *shudent*). The full forms are used in writing, in very formal speech, and in emphatic denials.

NOTE. "He is not laughing" may be contracted in two ways:—"He's not laughing" or "He isn't laughing"; similarly "You're not eating" or "You aren't eating"; "He'll not come" or "He won't come."

§ 233. A statement is converted into a **question** by inverting the order of the subject and the auxiliary verb. In the compound tenses, *viz*, the future, and the continuous and perfect forms, auxiliaries are always used, and there is no difficulty:

*Statement.**Question.*

I shall go.

Shall I go ?

I was sleeping.

Was I sleeping ?

I have paid him.

Have I paid him ?

For the simple indefinite tenses the auxiliary *do* is brought into use ;

You play every day.

Do you play every day ?

You played yesterday.

Did you play yesterday ?

Punctuation. In writing a question mark (?) is put at the end of a direct question.

EXERCISE 94

Turn the following sentences (*a*) into the negative form, (*b*) into the interrogative form. Also give contracted forms. (1) He likes swimming. (2) You kicked your brother. (3) I shall go to Calcutta. (4) I have found a rupee. (5) He will come back next week. (6) You were playing.

CHAPTER XL

VERBS—D. THE MOODS OF THE VERB—FINITE AND INFINITE FORMS.

(i) Mood.

- § 234. (1) *I am writing* a letter. *I write* to my father every day.
 (2) *Write* this down in your books.

In sentence (1) the verb is used to make a statement and it refers to an action as a fact—something that is happening (or has happened or will happen).¹

In sentence (2) the verb is used to express a command ; the action named may be one which may not become an actual fact, if the boys cannot do it. The action of writing is here thought of in a different manner, *e.g.*, in a different mode.

The different ways or modes in which the idea of an action may be represented are called **moods**.

Statements of fact (or questions as to fact) are made by means of verbs in the **indicative mood**.

Expressions of command are made by verbs in the **imperative mood**.

§ 235. The **imperative** is in form the same as the infinitive without *to* (and usually the 1st person singular form of the present indefinite tense) *go, run, see, drive*, without any subject being expressed, though *you* is implied.

The negative is formed by means of the auxiliary *do* along with the negative adverb *not*, *e.g.*, *do not go* ; contraction usually taking place in speech, *e.g.*, *don't go*.

Another mood, to be studied later, is the **subjunctive, by which the verb refers to what is imagined, doubted, hoped, etc., usually in subordinate clauses ; *i.e.*, it expresses supposition, uncertainty, etc.

¹ Even if a question is asked, "Are you writing a letter ? Do you write to your father every day ?" the action is thought of as a fact.

Except in the past tense of *to be*, where *were* is used for all persons, no separate form for the subjunctive is now much used.

Originally there were special forms for the present subjunctive—the same as the infinitive without *to* or the imperative, but in agreement with a subject: “if a man *love* me,” “if he *be* honest”—but these have now almost passed out of standard use. Auxiliaries, e.g., *may*, *might*, are however used to make compound tenses which do the work of the subjunctive, and may be called ‘subjunctive-equivalents.’

(ii) Finite and Infinite forms of the Verb.— Verb-Nouns and Verb-Adjectives.

§ 236. The verbal forms that we have been studying are used

- (1) to denote an action (or condition),
- (2) to make a statement about its occurrence (or existence), or to ask a question or give a command.

In such a sentence as

I wrote a letter every morning.

I have named a certain action, *viz.*, writing, and I have also stated that the action has taken place. I have done this by putting the verb into a certain form (to show its person and number as well as its tense), and using it as the predicate to a subject in a sentence; *i.e.*, by using it in a definite relation with certain other words.

The meaning of such a verb—used as the predicate of a sentence and agreeing in person and number with a particular subject word—is limited and made more definite by its agreement

with a subject, and the verbal form is called **finite**. The action named is confined to a certain doer.

§ 237. In such sentences as

Writing letters is pleasant.

To write well is difficult.

the words *writing* and *(to) write* denote or name an action ; but the action is not confined to a certain doer, and there is no statement that the action takes place. These words are verbs, because they denote actions ; but the verbs are not used as predicates and are not limited to a definite subject ; so they are called **infinite** or **non-finite** parts of the verb.

§ 238. In actual fact these words are names of actions, and are themselves used as subjects in sentences (with predicates agreeing with them—*is pleasant, is difficult*) and so have also the function of nouns. They are therefore called **verb-nouns**.

(1) *(To) write* is called the **infinitive**.

(a) It commonly has *to* prefixed—"the infinitive with *to*";

(b) but often it is used without *to*—"the infinitive without *to*"

(2) *Writing* in the sentence above is the **gerund**. It denotes the performance or carrying on of an action.

§ 239. These verb-nouns have a double function. They are like

(a) nouns, because they

- (i) are names (names of actions), and so
- (ii) can stand as subjects or objects of a verb, or objects gerunds only) of prepositions in phrases ;

(b) verbs, because

- (i) actions are what they denote, and
- (ii) they themselves can have (1) objects, or (2) adverbs modifying them

In the sentences "I like writing letters", "I like to write letters in the morning", *writing* and *to write* are themselves (i) objects of I *like*, and (ii) take an object, *viz.*, *letters*.

§ 240. Sometimes, in a sentence like "I cannot read his writing". the word *writing*, which has the form of a gerund, has no verbal function at all ; *i.e.*, does not do the work of a verb in any way, but merely does the work of a noun, just as we might say "I cannot read his letter". It differs from other nouns in that it is formed from a verb. Names of actions (as distinguished from things, persons, etc.) which have the gerundial form with no real verbal function, have often been called "verbal nouns"¹ as distinct from gerunds.

These "verbal nouns" like other nouns, can be preceded by the definite article, and where a

¹ This term is not recommended by the Committee on Terminology. It is perhaps not really necessary.

gerund would have an object they are followed by an *of*-phrase.

The writing of a letter is easy (verbal noun).

Writing a letter is easy (gerund).

NOTE Many abstract nouns have this form.

§ 241. All verb-forms ending in *-ing* are not gerunds.

A *blazing* fire was burning in the room.

Running water is purer than *standing* water.

Here *blazing*, *running*, and *standing* clearly do the work of adjectives, qualifying *fire* and *water*.

“*Hari*, *driving* a motor-car, was the first to come”. In this sentence *driving*, besides doing the work of an adjective, qualifying *Hari*, also acts as a verb and takes an object. Its verbal character is thus shown very clearly. Such words, which are both verbs and adjectives, are called **participles**.

§ 242. A *burnt* child dreads the fire.

He went away like a *beaten* dog.

Here *burnt* and *beaten* are also words which do the work of adjectives, although they are formed from verbs, and so are also participles.

The action referred to by these participles which end in *-ed*, *-t*, *-en*, is usually completed action and they are often called “perfect partici-

ples", but, as there is usually a reference to past time, they are commonly called **past participles**.

The participles in *-ing* usually refer to uncompleted or continuous action, and they are often known as "imperfect participles", but more commonly as **present participles**, as the reference is usually, but not always, to present time.

§ 243. These two participles are the forms that are used in combination with auxiliary verbs to make the compound tenses of verbs :

<i>Participle</i>	<i>Tenses</i>	<i>Auxiliaries</i>
Present (Imperfect)	Continuous	am (is, are) ; was (were) ; shall be ; (should be).
Past (Perfect)	Perfect	have (has) ; had ; shall have ; (should have).

The infinite without *to* is used with *shall* or *will* for the future tenses.

****NOTE. 1.** This statement concerns only the active voice. In the present participle the verbal idea is active, as it is in the past participle of an intransitive verb ("he has gone," "I have slept")¹. But the verbal idea is passive in the past participle of a transitive verb, not only when the participle is used adjectivally, where it is clearest ("a *burnt* child" is a child who has suffered burning ; "a *beaten* dog" is a dog who has suffered a beating), but also when it is part of a compound tense, "I *have burnt* my book" The past participle is therefore naturally used for the passive voice ; "we were beaten," "our army was defeated." ¹

¹ Exceptions "a *learned* man", "he is *mistaken*", "a *well-read* man".

If an active past participle of transitive verb is required, *having* is compounded with the simple passive participle: "*Having burnt* his book, Hari ran away."

NOTE 2. In these compound tenses the participle is used just as a predicative adjective is used (as complement to a verb in complete predication); compare "The baby was crying" and "The baby was happy."

§ 244. Different tenses of the verb-nouns and verb-adjectives may be formed by making compounds with parts of the auxiliary *have*.

Verb-Nouns (Active).

1. **Infinitive**—*Present*—(to) write
Perfect—(to) have written
2. **Gerund**—*Present*—writing
Perfect—having written

Verb-Adjectives (Active)

Transitive.

Participles—*Present*—writing
Perfect—having written
Past

Intransitive.

Sleeping
 having slept
 slept

N.B. Distinguish carefully between the use of.

1. (*a*) the present participle—"a sleeping man will do no harm"

and (*b*) the gerund (present)—"I dislike sleeping in the day".

2. (*a*) the perfect participle—"Having written the exercise he went out to play"

(*b*) the gerund (perfect)—"He denied having written the letter".

The participle is used as an adjective, the gerund as a noun.

§ 245. SUMMARY. The **finite** parts of a verb include the indicative mood (for statements and questions as to fact), the imperative mood (for commands, a definite subject being understood), and the subjunctive mood (for the imagination or expression of doubt about facts).

The **infinite** parts include the verb-nouns (infinitive and gerund) and verb-adjectives (participles), all of which are sometimes said to belong to the "infinite mood".

EXERCISE 95

Parse the italicised words below, saying also whether they are finite or infinite parts of the verb :—(1) *Run* quickly, and *having found* the medicine, *bring* it here. (2) Then *ask* Dr. Das *to come*. (3) *Coming* in his car, he *will arrive* in a few minutes. (4) *To faint* like that is very dangerous. (5) I *did not like* his *looking* so pale. (6) We saw two carts, *loaded* very heavily.

CHAPTER XLI

VERBS—E. ACTIVE AND PASSIVE FORMS AND USAGES.

§ 246. We have seen the difference between the active and the passive use of a transitive verb ; and we have seen that the past or perfect participle of a transitive verb normally has a

passive meaning. It is by means of this participle that all the tenses of the passive voice of a verb are constructed. They are all compound tenses.

§ 247. The conjugation of a verb in the passive voice is given alongside that of the active voice so that

- (1) the similar uses of the auxiliaries for the tenses
- (2) the different uses of the participle may be observed.

Indicative Mood.

<i>Tense</i>	<i>Active Voice</i>	<i>Passive Voice</i>
Present		
<i>Indefinite</i>	I shake	I am shaken
<i>Continuous</i>	I am shaking	I am being shaken
<i>Perfect</i>	I have shaken	I have been shaken
Past		
<i>Indefinite</i>	I shook	I was shaken
<i>Continuous</i>	I was shaking	I was being shaken
<i>Perfect</i>	I had shaken	I had been shaken
Future		
<i>Indefinite</i>	I shall shake	I shall be shaken
<i>Continuous</i>	I shall be shaking	(I shall be being shaken)
<i>Perfect</i>	I shall have shaken	I shall have been shaken
Future in the Past		
<i>Indefinite</i>	I should shake	I should be shaken
<i>Continuous</i>	I should be shaking	(I should be being shaken)
<i>Perfect</i>	I should have shaken	I should have been shaken

N.B. The perfect participle passive appears in *all* tenses of the passive voice, along with appropriate form of the auxiliary verb *to be*.

§ 248. (1) He shook *me*. He gave me *a book*.

(2) *I* was shaken by him. *A book* was given to me by him.

The direct object of the active verb in sentence 1 has become the subject of the passive verb in sentence 2.

Similarly an indirect object of an active verb may become the subject of a passive verb :—

(3) He gave *me* a book

(4) *I* was given a book by him.

In sentence (3) the direct object is *a book*. This remains in sentence (4), and is known as the **retained object** and the case is called the **retained accusative**.

Verb-Noun.

	<i>Active</i>	<i>Passive</i>
1. Infinitive—		
	<i>Present</i> —(to) shake	(to) be shaken
	<i>Perfect</i> —(to) have shaken	(to) have been shaken
2. Gerund—		
	<i>Present</i> —shaking	being shaken
	<i>Perfect</i> —having shaken	having been shaken

Verb-Adjective.

	<i>Active</i>	<i>Passive</i>
Participle—		
	<i>Present</i>	
	shaking	being shaken
	<i>Perfect</i>	having been shaken
	<i>Past</i>	shaken

N.B. Distinguish between the participles : —“Being shaken, the man could not utter a word”, “Having been shaken, he did not feel well”; and the gerund : —“Being shaken is unpleasant”, “He objected strongly to having been shaken by any one”.

**§ 249. We have seen (Ch. xxxvii, § 214) that an intransitive verb with a preposition is sometimes used, as if it were a compound verb used transitively with an object : “He was *laughing at me*”. This may be turned into the passive form, the object (of the preposition or of the compound verb) becoming the subject : “I was *laughed at* by him”.

EXERCISE 96

Turn into the passive form :—1. The king expressed a wish.
2. The dog was chasing the cat. 3. Driving in a car is very pleasant. 3. Everyone talked about the event. 5. He gave me a rupee. 6. The Magistrate offered a reward to my brother.

CHAPTER XLII

VERBS—F. STRONG AND WEAK VERBS

§ 250. We have seen that verbs may be divided into two classes, **weak** and **strong**, according to the way in which they form the simple past tense.

(i) Weak Verbs.

A verb that forms its simple past tense (and past participle) by the addition of the sound *t*, *d*, or *ed* at the end is a **weak verb**.

If the verb ends in the sound of	The inflexion added is usually the		Examples
	sound	written as	
<i>t</i> or <i>d</i>	<i>-ed</i> (an extra syllable)	<i>-d</i> after a consonant, <i>-ed</i> after a silent <i>e</i> , ¹	fit, fitted ; mind, minded ; requite, requited.
a voiceless consonant (except <i>-t</i>) ; e.g., <i>k</i> , <i>p</i> , <i>f</i> , <i>s</i> , <i>sh</i> , <i>ch</i> .	<i>-t</i>		look, looked ; like, liked ; hope, hoped ; pass, passed or past ; notice, noticed.
any other sound ; viz., (i) a vowel (ii) a voiced consonant (except <i>d</i>) ; e.g., <i>g</i> , <i>b</i> , <i>r</i> , <i>j</i> , <i>m</i>	<i>-d</i>		(i) follow, followed ; deny denied. (ii) live, lived ; refuse, refused ; seem, seemed arrange, arranged.

N.B. 1. In spelling, many weak verbs end in a silent *-e*. This remains silent when the *-d* is added ; i.e., an extra syllable is not produced. *Like* is pronounced *likt*.

2. Verbs like *care*, *gather* in ordinary speech end in a vowel, as the *r* is hardly pronounced.

3. (a) the sound of *s* is often written as *c(e)*—*induce*, *notice*.

¹ Except that *t* is sometimes so written after *-l* or *n*. See below on variations and contractions.

(b) the sound of *j* is often written as *g(e)*—*change, judge*.

(c) the sound of *z* is often written as *(s)e*—*devise, suppose*.

4. *-y* after a consonant is written as *-i-* before *-ed* is added :—*rally, rallied*. (But after a vowel it is unchanged—*play, played*.)

5. The last consonant letter is written double before *-ed* (or *-ing*) is added, *e.g.*, *stop, stopped, stopping; pat, patted; remit, remitted, remitting; defer, deferred; compel, compelled*; except in verbs with two or more syllables of which the last is not stressed or accented in pronunciation; *e.g.*, *gallop, galloped, galloping; benefit, benefited*.

EXCEPTION. But if the last consonant is *l* this is usually doubled regardless of accent, *e.g.*, *travel, travelled, travelling; level, levelled. Worshipped, worshipping*, is another exception.

§ 251. **Variations and contractions in the formation of the past tense (and past participle) :—**

(1) Some verbs ending in *l* and *n* (voiced consonants) also have forms in *-t* (so written and pronounced) as well as in *-d* (written *-ed*) :—*dwel, dwelt* or *dwelled; spill, spilt* or *spilled; burn, burnt* or *burned; learn, learnt* or *learned*; similarly *spell, smell, pen* (= shut up).

(2) Some verbs ending in *-nd* and a few in *-ld* have contracted forms in *t* instead of *-ed* :—

e.g., send, sent ; spend, spent ; build, built ; so also lend, rend, bend. Gird has girt and girded.

NOTE. *Gild* has, besides *gilded*, a participle *gilt* that is used only as adjective, *e.g.*, "a gilt frame," and not in the compound tenses, for which only *gilded* is used. On the other hand *bended* is used only as adj. in the phrase "on bended knees."

(3) A similar contraction has resulted in many other verbs ending in *-d* and *-t* having unchanged forms for the past tense and participle :—*cast, cost, cut, hit, hurt, let, put, set, shed, shut, slit, split, spread, thrust.*

4. (a) Many other verbs undergo a shortening of the vowel before the *-t* or *-d* is added :—*creep, crept ; deal, dealt ; feel, felt ; flee, fled ; keep, kept ; leave, left ; mean, meant ; say, said* (pron. *sed*) ; *shoe, shod ; sleep, slept ; sweep, swept ; weep, wept.* A few have a regular form in *-ed* as well as a contracted form ; *e.g., kneel, knelt or kneeled ; light, lit or lighted ; bereave, bereft or bereaved ; dream, dreamt* (pron. *dremt*) or *dreamed ; lean, leant* (pron. *lent*) or *leaned ; leap, leapt* (pron. *lept*) or *leaped.*

(b) A few such contracted forms ending in *-d* no longer have any additional *-t* or *-d* sound at the end :—*bleed, bled ; breed, bred ; feed, fed ; lead, led ; meet, met ; read, read* (pron. *red*) ; *speed, sped.*

5. (a) A few verbs show a complete change of vowel as well as a final inflexion :—*seek, sought ; beseech, besought ; bring, brought ; buy, bought ; think, thought ; sell, sold ; tell, told.*

(b) Notice also (i) *catch, caught; teach, taught*; (ii) *have, had; make, made*.

§ 252. This weak conjugation is the one to which all newly formed verbs belong:—*motored, telephoned, volplaned, camouflaged, taxied, boycotted, wirelessly*.

EXERCISE 97

Give the past tense forms of:—*spell, spread, send, coat, bleed, learn, build, cut, dream, shoe, sweep, bring, tell, teach, lean, buy, catch, make, smell, light*.

EXERCISE 98

Give the present tense forms of:—*sought, wept, sped, thrust, lent, gilt, hurt, felt, bereft, gold*.

(ii) Strong Verbs.

§ 253. A **strong verb** is one which has *not* formed its past tense by adding a sound at the end, *viz.*, *-t* or *-d*. It usually, but not always, has a changed vowel within the word.¹

In some strong verbs the past participle has (i) the same form as the past tense, *e.g.* “He *burst* the ball”; “The ball has *burst*”; “I *found* a rupee”, “I have *found* a rupee”; but in others there is (ii) another change of vowel-sound, or (iii) the sound *-en* or *-n* is added;

(i) I *beat*, I *beat*, *beaten*

(ii) I *drink*, I *drank*, *drunk* (or *drunken* as adj.)

(iii) I *choose*, I *chose*, *chosen*

¹ Differences that existed originally in Old English, *e.g.*, *beaten, beat; laetan, let; berstan, baerst, burston, borsten*; have sometimes disappeared; *beat, beat; let, let; burst, burst*.

Sometimes both forms of participle are in use, one (usually the form in *-en*) being used only as an adjective, the other being used for the compound tenses.

N.B. All verbs that change the vowel for the past tense are not strong. Those that change the vowel *and* add *-t* or *-d* are weak; e.g. *teach, taught*. A strong verb is one that *has not added* such a consonant to form its past tense, even in Old English.

§ 254. List of **strong verbs**.

(the more important only.)

NOTE (a) Weak forms used as well as strong forms, or instead of them where the latter have disappeared are printed in italics.

(b) Forms within square brackets are obsolete or used only in poetry.

(c) Forms within round brackets are somewhat rare or are used only in special cases.

(d) Participial forms marked with an obelust† are now used only as adjectives.

<i>Present Tense</i>	<i>Past Tense</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke	awoke <i>or</i> <i>awaked</i>
bear	bore	borne <i>or</i> born (see note 1)
beat	beat	beaten
begin	began	begun
bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
bind	bound	bound [<i>or</i> bounden†]
bite	bit	bitten [bit]
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
burst	burst	burst

<i>Present Tense</i>	<i>Past Tense</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
chide	chid	chidden, [chid]
choose	chose	chosen
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
crow	[crew], <i>crowed</i>	<i>crowed</i>
dig	dug, [<i>digged</i>]	dug, [<i>digged</i>]
do	<i>did</i>	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk, drunken†
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forget	forgot	forgotten
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung, <i>hanged</i>	hung, <i>hanged</i> (see note 2)
hew	<i>hewed</i>	hewn, <i>hewed</i>
hold	held	held
know	knew	known
lade	<i>laded</i>	laden, (<i>laded</i>)
lie	lay	lain
mow	<i>mowed</i>	mown
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang, (rung)	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
saw	<i>sawed</i>	sawn, (<i>sawed</i>)
see	saw	seen
shake	shook	shaken

Present Tense

shew
show
shear
shine
shoot
shrink
sing
sink
sit
slay
slid
sling
slink
sow
speak
spin
spit
spring
stand
steal
stick
sting
strike
string
strive
swear
swell
swim
swing
take
tear
thrive
throw
tread
wake
wear
weave
win
wind

Past Tense

shewed
showed
sheared
shone
shot
shrank
sang
sank
sat
slew
slid
slung
slunk
sowed
spoke
spun
spat
sprang
stood
stole
stuck
stung
struck
strung
strove
swore
swelled
swam
swung
took
toje
throve, (thrived)
threw
trod
woke, *waked*
wore
wove
won
wound

Past Participle

shewn
shown
shorn, (*sheared*)
shone
shot
shrunk, shrunken†
sung
sunk, sunken
sat
slain
slid
slung
slunk
sown, *sowed*
spoken
spun
—
sprung
stood
stolen
stuck
stung
struck, [stricken]†
strung
striven
sworn
swollen, *swelled*
swum
swung
taken
torn
thriven, (thrived)
thrown
trodden
waked, (woken, woke)
worn
woven, (wove)†
won
wound

<i>Present Tense</i>	<i>Past Tense</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

NOTE. 1. *Born* is used instead of *borne* when the meaning is "given birth to," except after *have* and before *by*.

2. *Hanged* is used of the death punishment.

3. Compound verbs e.g., *befall*, *forbid*, *forgive*, *behold*, etc., usually keep the forms of the simple verbs; but contrast *get* and *forget*.

4. Some verbs, originally strong, have become weak; but the old strong past participle has survived in adjectival uses, often only in particular phrases:—e.g., *seethe*, *sodden*; *shave*, *shaven*; *melt*, *molten*; *cleave*, *cloven* (*cloven hoof*); *shape*, *shapen* (*mis-shapen*).

EXERCISE 99

Separate the weak and the strong verbs in exercises 95 and 96, giving the past tense form and past participle of each.

EXERCISE 100

Give the past tense and past participle of each of the following verbs, saying whether it is weak or strong: *bear*, *begin*, *teach*, *buy*, *blow*, *draw*, *lie*, *fall*, *get*, *deal*, *bleed*, *forget*, *know*, *leave*, *rise*, *wear*, *cut*, *meet*, *beat*, *slay*, *kneel*, *sting*, *steal*, *spring*, *lay*, *telephone*.

EXERCISE 101

Give the present tense forms of the following past tense forms:—*fled*, *wept*, *brought*, *bound*, *chose*, *lay*, *lied*, *laid*, *bred*.

** EXERCISE 102

Are the following verbs weak or strong:—*sit*, *set*, *buy*, *bite*, *burst*, *beat*, *hit*, *hurt*, *lie*, *put*, *let*, *catch*. *seek*?

CHAPTER XLIII

VERBS—G. DEFECTIVE OR ANOMALOUS VERBS.

§ 255. The conjugation of a verb is called **defective** when certain parts are not in use ; *e.g.*, *ought* and *must* have now no past tense, *can* and *may* have no participles or infinitive. The work of these parts has to be done in some other way.

A verb is called **anomalous** (*i.e.*, irregular) when some of its parts are formed in an irregular way ; *i.e.*, not according to the normal laws of the conjugation.

The functions and forms of auxiliaries, *have*, *be*, *do*, *shall*, *will*, have already been noticed ; but their conjugations will be exhibited here more fully, along with some other verbs used in a somewhat similar way.

§ 256. *Have*, *be*, and *do* are frequently used not only as auxiliaries, but also as verbs of full meaning.

HAVE as a verb of full meaning is equivalent to *possess*, and is conjugated fully :—

Indicative

Indefinite

Continuous

Perfect

Present

I have

I am]having

I have had

Past

I had

I was having

I had had

Future

I shall have

I shall be having

I shall have had

with the future in the past tenses, "I should have", etc., and the perfect continuous forms "I have been having (toothache)", etc.

Imperative—have

Infinitive—(to) have

Gerund—having

Participles

Present—having

Past—had

Subjunctive

Present—I have ;

Past—I had

The present indicative has the following forms :—

I have

You have (thou hast)

He has (hath)

we

you

they

} have

The **interrogative forms** are *have I, had I*, etc., the auxiliary *do* being unnecessary ; *shall I have, have I had, am I having*, etc.

The **negative forms** are *I have not, he has not, I had not*, etc., in speech usually contracted to *I haven't, he hasn't, I hadn't*, etc., when used with the meaning of "possess" in the simple indefinite, present or past, *e.g.*, "I hadn't any money" (at that moment), "I haven't any toothache now", "This tree hasn't any flowers", (as well as when used as an auxiliary) ; but *I do not have, he does not have, I did not have*, etc., (with their contractions), when used in the "habitual" present or past : "I didn't have toothache when I was young", "I don't have toothache every day", "This tree doesn't have flowers".

NOTE 1. The only irregularity of conjugation is the contraction in the form for the past tense and participle.

2. The continuous forms are sometimes used with continuous meaning "I am having a course of lessons", "I was having toothache every day"; but more often for the immediate future, "I am having a new bicycle to-morrow",

As an auxiliary *have* is used for the perfect tenses, active and passive. It is also used with the infinitive with *to* to express obligation: "I have to go to Calcutta", "I had to go...", "I shall have to go...", *i.e.*, I am (was, shall be) obliged to go...

§ 257. *BE* is commonly used

(a) as an auxiliary

(i) for the continuous tenses (with a present participle).

(ii) for the passive voice (with a past participle);

(b) as a verb of incomplete predication (copulative verb) with a noun or adjective used predicatively as its subjective complement; "Rama is captain", "Hari is clever"

It is less commonly used

(c) as a verb of full meaning in the sense of "exist": "*Are* there such things in the world?"

** (d) as an auxiliary

(iii) to form a perfect tense with the past participle of an intransitive verb, such as *come*, *go*: "He is gone", "The sun is set". (*Have* is now used normally.)

(iv) with the infinitive with *to* to express obligation or duty: "I am to inform you..." (but *have* is more common.)

- (v) with the passive infinitive to express possibility : "He was not to be persuaded" (of past time only).
 (vi) in the past subjunctive with the infinitive to express an unlikely supposition : "If he were to become rich..."

§ 258. **Indicative,**

	<i>Indefinite</i>	<i>Perfect</i>
<i>Present</i>	I am	I have been
<i>Past</i>	I was	I had been
<i>Future</i>	I shall be	I shall have been
<i>Future in the Past</i>	I should be	I should have been

Continuous forms "I am being", etc., appear as the auxiliary parts of passive verbs ; *e.g.*, "I am being cheated"; and occasionally when the verb is used copulatively with a complement : "He is being his own master".

Imperative—be.

Infinitive—(to) be : *Gerund*—being

Participles, *Pres.*—being ; *Past*—been.

Subjunctive, *Present*—I be ; *Past*—I were.

The present indicative personal forms are :—*I am, you are (thou art), he is ; we, you, they are.* The past tense has :—*I was, you were (thou wast), he was, we were,* etc.

The subjunctive tenses have the same forms for all persons, except for the old 2nd personal forms, *thou beest, thou wert.*

Negative—*I am not, (I'm not), you are not (you're not or you aren't) he is not (he's not or he is'nt), etc ; I was not (was'nt), you were not (were'nt), etc.*

Interrogative—*am I, are you, etc.*

§ 259. *DO* is used

(a) as an auxiliary for (i) emphatic assertions, (ii) questions,¹ (iii) negative statements; and (iv) entreaties, e.g., "Do write to me, please".

(b) as a principal verb with various meanings :—

(i) to perform or accomplish—"I have done my work", often with the special meaning of finished, completed—"Two more minutes and I have done".

(ii) to act—"You must do as I do".

(iii) to fare, to be (well, ill, etc.)—"How do you *do*?" "I am not *doing* very well."

(iv) as a substitute for verbs of action which it is not desired to repeat—"He plays better than I do".

§ 260. **Present Indicative**—I do, you do (thou dost, doest),² he does (doth, doeth)²; we, do etc.

Subjunctive—I do, you (*or* thou) do.

Past Indic.—I did, you did (thou didst), etc.

Subj.—I did, you (*or* thou) did, etc.

Imperative—do.*

Infinitive—(to) do. *Gerund*—doing.

Participles Present—doing; *Past* done.

¹ (a) *Do* may also be used as the reply. "Do you like this?" "Yes, I *do*" (= "I do like it").

(b) *Do* is not used in a direct question introduced by an interrogative pronoun (or adjective) as subject of the verb: "Who broke this?" "How much rice is there?"

² *Dost*, *doeth* were not used as auxiliary forms.

§ 261. *SHALL* and *WILL* have already been treated as auxiliaries for the future tense (§§ 229—231). They have no imperatives, infinitives, gerunds or participles. Contracted forms of *will*—*I'll*, *you'll*, etc., and of *would*—*I'd* *you'd* etc.

Contracted negative forms—*shan't*, *won't*; *shouldn't*, *wouldn't*.

(a) The original sense of *shall* was that of obligation, which is often retained to some extent when it is used in the 2nd and 3rd personal forms (see § 230) of the future tense.

(i) The old past tense form *should* is sometimes used as a present tense with this meaning: "He *should* come early," "We *should* always tell the truth," = "He ought to come," "It is our duty to tell..."

Should is also used as an auxiliary for the future in the past tense, and for certain subjunctive usages in subordinate clauses; *c.g.*,

(ii) Instead of *shall* in indirect or reported speech after a verb of saying in the past tense: "I said that we *should* go".

(iii) In conditional sentences for an unlikely supposition: "If I *should* go away, some one would steal my goods", "I *should* go if I were you".

(b) *Will* originally had the sense of willingness or intention and retains this in the 1st personal form.

(i) The old past tense form *would* is used to express resolve : *e.g.*, "They *would* not give up the money".

(ii) It has also come to express frequent or habitual action : *e.g.*, "He would read for hours every day".

It is also used as an auxiliary for the future in the past tense, and for certain subjunctive usages *e.g.* :—

(iii) Instead of *will* in indirect speech after a verb in the past tense : "He said that he would come".

(iv) In conditional sentences for supposition contrary to fact : "He would come if he were well" (but he is not well).

NOTE 1. There is a regular weak verb *to will*, with past tense *willed*, which means "to exercise the will, to desire and intend"; *e.g.* "God has willed it", "he willed me to do it".

2. *Should and would*, though past in form, sometimes refer to present or future time.

§ 262. *MAY* may also perhaps be classed as an auxiliary, being used for certain subjunctive equivalents : "Let us pray that he may live", "we prayed that he might live".

It also denotes permission, or possibility, in the indicative :

May I go ? (= "Am I permitted to go?")

He *may* die. (= It is possible that he will die.)

Ability, as in "A man may lead a horse to the water", is more often expressed by *can*.

In the subjunctive it may express

(a) a wish—"May you live long !"

(b) purpose (in a subordinate clause) :

(i) in the present tense :—"We eat that we may live"

(ii) in the past tense :—"I came that you might have life".

Forms. *May* throughout the present tense, and *might* throughout the past, for indicative and subjunctive moods, *may(c)st* and *might(c)st* being the old 2nd pers sing. forms. No other parts.

NOTE. The past form is sometimes used with a present or future meaning, suggesting that the possibility or expectation is more remote : "He might come to-night", "Might I go now ?"

EXERCISE 103

Write sentences using *is*, *have*, *do*, *may*, *should* and *would* (1) as verbs of full meaning, (2) as auxiliaries.

EXERCISE 104

Give the moods and tenses of the following verbs and say whether they are used as auxiliaries or as verbs of full meaning :—(1) He worked hard that he might win a prize. (2) If I were you, I should go home. (3) He may hurt himself with that gun. (4) Were he in your place he would not do that. (5) He might have gone yesterday. (6) I have had a headache all day. (7) May I take this book ? (8) Yes, but you will have to take care of it.

§ 263. The verbs treated above, *viz.*, *have*, *be*, *do*, *shall*, *will*, and *may*, are all sometimes used as auxiliaries. There are certain other defective verbs which are used in a somewhat similar way. Another verb must be used

or understood with them. Like *shall*, *will* and *may*, *can*, *must* and *dare* are followed by an infinitive without *to* as object. *Ought* and *dare* are followed by the infinitive with *to*. [They are sometimes called "modal auxiliaries".]

§ 264. *CAN* is conjugated like *may*, having the same form *can* throughout the present tense, and *could* throughout the past, both indicative and subjunctive, with the old forms *canst* and *couldst*. There are no other parts. Contracted negatives —*can't*, *couldn't*.

It is used to express ability or power, being much more common with this meaning than *may*.

Present—Birds *can* fly. Most animals *can't*.

Past—Indic. I *could* speak French when I was young.

Subj. If I *could* drive a car, I would go.

If I were there, I *could* help him.

The subjunctive form is used in conditional sentences for suppositions that are contrary to the facts. (Actually I cannot drive a car, I am not there.) It refers to present time.

§ 265. *MUST* has a present tense form only, showing no change. It expresses duty or necessity; e.g., 'I *must* go soon'; or sometimes a very great degree of probability (almost certainty); e.g., "The train *must* come soon."

OUGHT has a similar meaning and only one form, but, unlike *must*, takes as its object an infinitive with *to* :

I *ought to* go. The train *ought to* come soon.

To refer to past time the perfect infinitive is used with these verbs : "He *must have* come." "He *ought to have* come."

§ 266. *DARE* is now used as a regular weak verb (used with the infinitive with *to* or without *to*).

Present Tense—Indic. and Subj.—dare (with *dares* sometimes as 3rd. sing. indicative, followed by *to*).

Past Tense—Indic. and Subj.—dared.

Imperative and infinite forms regularly used.

The old past tense *durst* (in all persons) is almost disused.

Notice the following sentences ;—

- (1) "Dare you go?" "I dare go." "I daren't go." "I dare to say this."
- (2) "Did you dare to go?" "I dared to go." "I didn't dare to go." "I dared not go." ["Durst you go?" "I durst not go." "I durst go anywhere".].

In these sentences *dare* means "venture" (*i.e.*, "have enough courage"). It may also be used transitively to mean "challenge" or "defy" or "face"; *e.g.* "He has dared many dangers" (=faced courageously); "I dared him to fight me" (=challenged).

§ 267. *NEED* when meaning "is not compelled, is not under the necessity", and followed by an infinitive without *to* in the negative, is used in the 3rd. sing. indic. pres. without *s*; *e.g.*, "He need not go." Other wise *needs* is used; *e.g.*, in the affirmative (followed by the infinitive with *to*) "He *needs* to go for a change", or with a noun object. "He *needs* a change."

LET meaning "allow (to)" is followed by a noun or pronoun object (accusative case) and by a verb-object, infinitive without *to*. "I let him go out daily" (=allow him to go).

It is also used in the imperative mood in the same way with two objects, to make subjunctive equivalents in sentences expressing desires, which supply the lack of a 1st and 3rd person in the imperative mood. "Let us give him some help", "Let them set an example".

NOTE. *Let* is of course also commonly used as an ordinary intransitive verb of full meaning: "We let our house".

§ 268. Certain verbs are used in the 3rd person singular form (often this alone) with the pronoun *it* as indefinite subject:—"It is raining, it will snow". "*It seems* to me that you are wrong" may be considered as an impersonal usage.

NOTE. "If you please" = "if it please you".

EXERCISE 105

In the following sentences give equivalents for the italicised words:—(1) I will *let her come* to-morrow. Hari *need not go* to school. (3) I *must have left* my book at home. (4) The results *must be* out to-morrow. (5) I *must go* to the Senate House. (6) *Dare you go*? (7) He *dared me* to go in the boat. (8) I *ought to* have gone.

CHAPTER XLIV

VERBS H. THE PARSING OF VERBS.

§ 269. In the full parsing of a verb. We may state

- (1) its kind—strong or weak ;
- (2) its use—transitive or intransitive, copulative or auxiliary ;
- (3) its voice—active or passive (if transitive) ;
- (4) whether it is finite or infinite ;
- (5) its mood (if finite)—indicative, imperative, subjunctive ;
- (6) its tense (*a*) present, past, or future, (*b*) whether complete or incomplete, indefinite (momentary) or continuous or habitual action is denoted ;
- (7) its person and number (if finite) ;
- (8) (if finite) the subject with which as predicate it agrees in form ;
- (9) (if transitive) the object which it governs ;
- (10) (if necessary) the complement which completes its predication.

N.B. Compound tenses should be parsed as wholes, not word by word.

Examples : (1) *I have burnt* my book.

Have burnt—verb, weak, transitive, active, finite, indicative, present perfect tense,

1st person singular ; agreeing with its subject *I*, governing *my book* as object.

- (2) *I have toothache* every day.

Have—verb, weak, transitive, active, finite, indicative, present indefinite (habitual) tense, 1st person singular, agreeing with its subject *I*, governing *toothache* as object.

- (3) Alfred *became* king.

Became—verb, strong, intransitive, finite, indicative, past indefinite tense, 3rd person singular, agreeing with its subject *Alfred*, completed by the subjective complement, *king*.

- (4) I like *writing* letters

Writing—verb, strong, transitive, active, infinite, gerund. present tense, governing *letters* as object, itself object of *I like*.

- (5) I was taught to *write* letters by my father.

To *write*—verb, strong, transitive, active, present infinitive form, retained object of the passive verb *was taught*, itself governing *letters* as object.

EXERCISE 106

Parse the verbs in :—(1) Experience will teach us much. (2) My brother taught me to swim. (3) Hari was made captain. (4) Writing well is not easy. (5) Every one likes the writing of letters. (6) He laughed a hearty laugh. (7) To err is human. (8) I was sleeping heavily.

CHAPTER XLV

ADVERBS

§ 270. We have seen in Chapter XI that an adverb is a word that is added to a verb, adjective, or other adverb or phrase, to modify or qualify its meaning and make it clearer or more exact.

§ 271. We shall also see that just as an adverb may modify a single word it may modify a group of words that does the work of a single word, *i.e.*, a phrase (without a finite verb); *e.g.*, "He swam *nearly* across the river," where *nearly* modifies the whole phrase "across the river" ("if not the complete predicate "swam across the river").

NOTE Some grammarians, who have overlooked the function of the phrase as a whole, and shortsightedly have confined their attention to single words in the old fashion, have made the misleading statement that adverbs may modify prepositions, *e.g.*, *across* in the sentence above, and *under* in "The rock was *almost* under the water." In the last sentence the substitution of "submerged" for "under the water" will show the advantage of regarding the adverb *almost* as modifying the whole phrase "under the water" [or even perhaps as modifying the complete predicate "was under the water"].

§ 272. Just as an adverb may modify a verb or simple predicate it may modify the complete predicate, *i. e.*, practically the whole sentence. Such adverbs, *e.g.*, *accordingly*, *consequently*, *so*, *therefore*, *besides*, *however*, *also*, *moreover*

perhaps, yet, nevertheless, are called **Sentence Adverbs**.

Perhaps he will come

Consequently (or *therefore*) I went to Calcutta.

N.B. These words have often been regarded as coordinating conjunctions. They undoubtedly have a connective force and may also be called **connective adverbs**.¹

§ 273. The most common adverbs that we use are **descriptive adverbs**, sometimes called **adverbs of manner**, they are chiefly used to describe more fully the action named by a verb, or participial adjective (formed from a verb), and to say how (in what manner) it is done ; or sometimes to describe in what way an adjective is applicable, *i.e.*, to modify its meaning,

"He is walking *slowly*." "He fought *bravely*"

"A *quickly* drying (or quick-drying) paint,"
"A *roughly* behaved man."

NOTE. Many adverbs apparently descriptive are more properly adverbs of degree denoting amount ; e.g., "*roughly* equal" (=almost equal), "*surprisingly* honest" (=very), "*closely* similar."

Most descriptive adverbs of manner are formed from adjectives by the addition of the suffix *-ly* ; e.g., *brave, bravely* ; *slow, slowly* ; *rough, roughly* ; *sad, sadly*.

¹ The recommendation of the Committee on Terminology is "That no words which can be treated as Adverbs be included among coordinating conjunctions ; it being recognised that some adverbs qualify the sentence as a whole."

Note the spelling of *happy, happily; funny, funnily; feeble, feebly; gentle, gently; noble, nobly*.

N.B. All words in *-ly* are not adverbs. Many adjectives end in *-ly*, *e.g.*, *silly, manly, godly, friendly*. These are turned into adverbs in various ways usually by means of a phrase "in a manly way" (but *sillily* is used).

2. Often a word can be used as either adjective or adverb without change of form, *e.g.*, "A *fast* runner," He runs *fast*"; "The train is *late*"; "You have come *late*." So with *early, hard, loud*.

§ 275. Several different kinds of adverbs that we have studied already can be grouped together as **indicating adverbs**. These are

(a) **Demonstrative Adverbs** (§ 157) of different kinds

(i) place - *here, there, yonder, far, below*, etc.

(ii) time—*now, then, soon, to-day, formerly, afterwards*, etc.

(iii) manner—*thus, so; e.g.*, "you should not do so."

(b) **Interrogative adverbs** (§ 162) :—*when? where? why? how?*

(c) **Emphasizing adverbs** (§ 153) :—*very, only* ("only two").

(d) **Relative Adverbs** (§ 156), *e.g.*, *when, where, while, why*; connective adverbs or

adverbial connectives, introducing adjectival clauses, which refer back to noun antecedents :

We found him in the room *where* he had been shot.

N.B. When there is no such antecedent expressed and these words introduce adverbial clauses or noun clauses they are **subordinating conjunctions**,¹ but their adverbial character may be recognised by using the term **connective adverb** or **adverbial connective**.¹ *e.g.*, "I lay *where* I fell," "I did not know *where* to go."

NOTE. "*There* was once a king reigning in Delhi." In this use of *there* all idea of pointing out a place has been lost, and the word is almost meaningless. This may be called its "introductory use". All that the sentence means is "A king was once reigning in Delhi."

§ 276. Adverbs of Degree, or Adverbs of Amount and Number.

(a) (i) Corresponding to the *definite* numeral adjectives, cardinal, and ordinal we have adverbs, *once, twice, first* (it is not necessary to say *firstly*), *secondly*, etc.

(ii) Corresponding to *indefinite* number-adjectives we have such adverbs as *often, always, seldom, sometimes, again, frequently*.

Most of these answer such questions as *How often* ? *Where* (in order) ?

¹ See *Grammatical Terminology*, Recommendations XXX and XXXI. The Association of Assistant Masters considered that *when, where*, etc., introducing subordinate clauses (even when they are dependent questions) shall be called conjunctions and not adverbs.

(b) Corresponding to adjectives of quantity we have such adverbs as *very*, *quite*, *enough*, *greatly*, *partly*, *altogether*, *scarcely*. I have *too* little time, he is a *little* known man, a *much* abused statesman, I like him *more* every day. These answer such questions as *In what degree?*

§ 277. There are then these classes of adverbs :—

- (1) **descriptive adverbs** or **adverbs of manner** ;
- (2) **indicating adverbs** of different kinds ,
- (3) **adverbs of degree** or **of quantity** (and number) ;
- (4) **Sentence-adverbs**.

There is also the **negative** adverb *not* (with *never*, *nowhere*) which is sometimes classed separately, but may be treated as either an adverb of degree or a sentence-adverb.

Yes and *no* are really **sentence-equivalents**. "Are you going?" "*Yes*" (= I am going). "*No*" (= I am not going).

N.B. 1. The work of an adverb may be done by a phrase (a group of words without a finite verb): In the morning, at night, after dinner, side by side, somehow or other, in this way. It may also be done by a clause (a group of words with a finite verb).

2 A word that is usually a noun is sometimes used adverbially; He went *home*, I am *a year* older, I have been here all *day*, the stick was *a yard* long.

[If it is necessary to state the case of the noun, it may be called accusative, but there seems no necessity for this.]

§ 278. Some adverbs of manner (descriptive adverbs) and some others can have **Comparative** and **Superlative** forms as descriptive adjectives can. Adverbs which are identical in form with adjectives make their comparative and superlative forms in the same way :—

	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
late	later	latest (<i>and</i> last)
long	longer	longest
high	higher	highest
as well as		
soon	sooner	soonest
often	oftener	oftenest
and the irregular		
much	more	most
little	less	least
well	better	best
far	further	farthest
	further	furthest

Badly has *worse* and *worst*.

But most adverbs, especially with two or more syllables, use the adverbs *more* and *most* :

bravely	more bravely	most bravely
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or for the comparison of inferiority, *less* and *least*:

bravely	less bravely	least bravely.
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Many adverbs, *e.g.*, *there*, *then*, *how*, *once*, *twice*, *first*, *secondly*, *therefore*, *when*, *why*, cannot have degrees of comparison.

EXERCISE 107

Pick out and name the adverbs in the following sentences and say what words they modify :—(1) We will always sit hand in hand. (2) I go to Calcutta quite often. (3) How are you? I am very ill, but I am not well. (4) My brother could play cricket very well formerly. (5) That man will probably be rewarded for acting so promptly and courageously. (6) By and by the men came near. (7) Have you ever been afloat? (8) No, but I shall certainly go to sea soon. (9) You will be glad to come home again. (10) Yes, that is only too true.

EXERCISE 108

Give the comparative and superlative forms of the adverbs above, if they have any.

EXERCISE 109

Pick out any adverbial phrases in the sentences above, and say what words they qualify.

CHAPTER XLVI

PREPOSITIONS.

§ 279. We have seen (§ 41) that a **preposition** is a word that is commonly used before a noun or a noun-equivalent to form a phrase. It shows the relation between (*a*) whatever is denoted by that noun (or noun-equivalent) which it governs and (*b*) some other thing (or attribute of a thing) or event, which is denoted by the word qualified or modified by the phrase.

- (1) My pen is *on* my desk.
- (2) I have come *from* school,
- (3) I take great pleasure *in* reading books.
- (4) We are ready *for* the fight.

In sentence (3) "reading books" is a noun-equivalent governed by the preposition *in*. The phrase "in reading books" is adverbial, modifying the predicate "take pleasure"; and *in* shows the relationship.

N.B. The noun (or pronoun, etc.) that is governed by the preposition is in the accusative case and is said to be its object.

NOTE. 1. A phrase is a group of words which does not contain a finite verb.

2. Every phrase is not introduced by a preposition; e.g., "*Hearing a noise*, I left the room."

§ 280. (a) The preposition usually precedes the noun or noun-equivalent that it governs; but when a sentence is introduced by an interrogative or relative pronoun which is the object of a preposition, the preposition sometimes follows (usually being separated by several words), especially in colloquial or informal speech. Instead of "*To whom* are you writing?" or "This is the book *from* which I was copying" we can say "*Whom* are you writing *to*?" or "This is the book (*that*) I was copying *from*".

NOTE. In poetry and rhetorical speech the order is often reversed with other words even when the verb is active.

(b) In a sentence like "Everyone talked *about* the event" *talked about* is almost equivalent to a

transitive verb with a direct object (=discussed), and it may be turned into the passive, "The event *was talked about* by everyone", the preposition following the noun that it governs.

§ 281. Sometimes two prepositions or a preposition and another word are joined together to make a **compound preposition** : "as for me, I shall certainly pass", "according to him I am wrong" ; so with *owing to*, *because of*, *instead of*, *out of*, etc. There may even be three words : *by means of*, *on account of*, *with reference to*, *in spite of*, *in front of* ; or even more ; *for the sake of*, *in the course of*. These may also be called *preposition-phrases*.

NOTE. 1. Some prepositions, e.g., *concerning*, *regarding*, *pending* have been formed from verbs : but they must be parsed as prepositions. ("Pending his decision we did nothing," "we have heard nothing regarding this").

2. The same phrase may be adverbial in one sentence ("The house was built *in the forest*") and adjectival in another ("The house *in the forest* was small").

§ 282. There are many words that are used now as prepositions, now as adverbs. We must see whether such a word stands alone and modifies a verb, or merely introduces a modifying phrase in which it governs a noun or noun-equivalent.

Adverb

I am staying *in* (=inside).
Put *on* your coat. }
Put your coat *on* }
You go *in front* and I will
go *behind*,
A doctor lived *near*.

Preposition

I stayed *in* the room
Put this *on* the desk.
You must go *in front* of Hari
and I will go *behind* him.
The doctor came *near* him.

NOTE. *But* may be used as a preposition (=except):
 "All *but* him had run away."

§ 283. Amongst the noun-equivalents that can be governed by prepositions (besides pronouns) are the following :

- (1) Words that are normally used as :—
 - (a) *Verbs* (i) *gerunds*.—*By working hard you will get a prize*
 - (ii) *Infinitives*.—*He wanted nothing but to die.*
 - (b) *Adjectives*.—*He was dejected to the last.*
 - (c) *Adverbs*.—*Since then he has never succeeded.*
- (2) *Phrases*.—*We were disputing about how to get there.*
- (3) *Clauses*.—*We were arguing as to when we ought to start.*

§ 284. Some of the common prepositions are :—*about, above, across, after, against, along, among, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, by, during, except, for, from, in, into, inside, near, of, off, on, onto, over, outside, past, round, since, till, until, to, toward (s), through, throughout, under, underneath, up, upon, with, within, without.*

§ 285. In parsing, it is well to parse the phrase *as a whole* and also the separate words in it ; e.g., "*He sat in his chair.*"

In his chair—adverbial phrase (of place) modifying *sat*.

in—preposition governing *his chair*,

his—possessive adjective qualifying *chair*,
referring to the antecedent *he*.

chair—class noun, singular, accusative case,
object of the preposition *in*.

EXERCISE 110

Parse the phrases and prepositions in the following sentences (saying what words they govern, and of what kind the phrases are). (1) The boy ran along the road to the house. (2) As he ran along he saw a man going into the house. (3) He went in after him. (4) He saw a boy with bloodstained clothes. (5) All the chairs but one were broken; and that was the one which he was sitting in. (6) The cat climbed up the tree and sat on a branch. (7) The dog could not climb up after her, and sat on the ground gazing up. (8) John was first and James came after; but they both came in the evening.

EXERCISE 111

Point out the single adverbs in the last exercise. Which of them can also be used as prepositions? Construct sentences in which they are so used.

CHAPTER XLVII

CONJUNCTIONS

§ 286. A **conjunction** is a link-word. It is used to join.

- (a) (i) two words or two phrases of a similar kind within a simple sentence; e.g. a double subject, a double predicate, etc. "This man was in his dotage

- and* out of his senses"; "Two *and* two make four"; "An officer *and* a gentleman never does this"); or
- (ii) the last two members of a multiple subject, etc., ("a lion, a fox, *and* an ass became friends");
- (b) the two co-ordinate parts of a double sentence or the last two in a multiple sentence ("I love you, *but* you do not love me"),
- (c) the main clause and a subordinate clause (noun-clause or adjective-clause) of a complex sentence.

Its work, therefore, is to link together sentences, clauses, or words that are similar parts of speech, or phrases that are equivalent to the latter.

§ 287. **Co-ordinating conjunctions** connect words or phrases or clauses that are of similar kind or equal rank and grammatically independent of each other. See (a) and (b) above. Such are *and*, *but*, *still*, *for*, *or*.

We called a doctor, *for* she was very ill.
He must come soon, *or* I shall go.

NOTE 1. *And* is sometimes called **copulative** (merely linking or adding), *but* **adversative** (contrasting), *or* **disjunctive** (connecting alternatives); *for* **illative** (giving the reason for an inference).

NOTE 2. *Yet*, *so*, *therefore*, *also*, are classed as sentence adverbs. See § 272 and note.

§ 288. Co-ordinating conjunctions that are used in pairs are called **co-relative**.

Both Rama *and* Hari were there.
Either Rama *or* Hari must come.
Neither Rama *nor* Hari was there.
 (N. B. Verb singular).

§ 289. **Subordinating** conjunctions join subordinate noun-clauses or adverbial clauses to the main clauses of complex sentences. They are always clause-links and never word-links. They introduce clauses that are dependent on other sentences.

These are :—

(a) noun-clauses—"I know *that* he will come." (Sometimes omitted—"I know he will come.")

(b) adverbial clauses :—

(1) time—*when, while, after, before, since, as soon as* ; "I have been home *since* you went away."

(2) place—*where* ; "It is lying *where* you put it."

(3) cause—*because, since, seeing that* ; "*Since* (or *seeing that*) you are here, you had better stay."

(4) purpose—(*in order*) *that* ; "I have sent some money (*in order*) that you may come home."

(5) result—*that* (after *so*)—"He was so ill *that* we gave up hope."

(6) condition—*if, unless, provided (that)* ; "I will give you some money,

provided (that) you give me a receipt."

(7) concession, (*although*) ; "He could not jump across, *although* he tried hard.

(8) comparison—*as, than* ; "He is taller *than* I am."

Some conjunctions are **compound**, e.g., *in order that, provided that, as soon as*. These should be parsed as wholes.

§ 290. In parsing, state the kind of the conjunction, and what it joins, e.g.,

"I will go *after* the post has come."

after—subordinating conjunction, joining the adverbial clause "the post has come" to the main clause "I will go."

N.B. Some words used as conjunctions may also be used as adverbs or as prepositions : e.g., *but, after, before, since, until* ; or as other parts of speech, e.g., *that, when, where*.

1. *Conj.*—I will go *after* the post has come.

Prep.—I will go *after* two o'clock.

Adv.—You must come *after*.

2. *Conj.*—He 'is poor now, *but* he will become rich.

Prep.—All *but* one fell ill.

Adv.—There was *but* one doctor in the town (= only).

¹ *But* is equivalent to a relative pronoun in "There is no one *but* wishes him well" (= who does not wish)

3. *Conj.*—I know *that* he will come.

Demons. Adj.—I have seen *that* man before.

Demons. Pron.—You shouldn't have done *that*.

Rel. Pron.—This is the house *that* Jack built.

4. *Conj.*—It is lying *where* you put it.

Rel. Adv.—It is lying in the place *where* you put it.

Interrog. Pron.—*Where* did you put it ?

N.B. A complex sentence may have two subordinate clauses that are co-ordinate to each other, *e.g.*, both adverbial clauses of time ; "I will see him when I have had my walk and *when* I have bathed." These two sentences are of equal rank, and are joined by a co-ordinating conjunction.

EXERCISE 112

Pick out the conjunctions in the following sentences, say what they join, and what kind of clause is introduced by each subordinating conjunction.—(1) We cannot go until you arrive ; but we don't want to be late, so please come as soon as you can. (2) Did you know that I saw you when you were in Calcutta ? (3) All but three of our students will fail, because they have not passed the test. (4) I shall gain more marks than he will, if we are examined both in history and in English. (5) If your tooth is not better, I think you should have it taken out when you go to Calcutta. The pain lasts but for a moment.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

SYNTAX—CONCORD

§ 291. **Syntax** is that aspect of grammar which treats of the relationships of words when they are used in sentences and their normal combination and arrangement.

The main structure of sentences has been studied, and also many of the usages of syntax have been dealt with in connection with the classification and forms of the different parts of speech, for differences of form (inflection) exist only to indicate differences of function.

So far as simple sentences are connected the usages have been expressed as (i) laws of **concord** or **agreement**, *i.e.*, the relationship of the words or phrases in a sentences with each other, *e.g.*, in number, person, gender or case ; (ii) laws of **government**, *i.e.*, the determination by one word of the inflexional form of another.

A few important points of syntax which have been touched on incidentally will receive further treatment here, before we deal with the use of the subjunctive mood of the verb, or its equivalent, in connection with the subordinate clauses of complex sentences.

§ 292. The finite verb of a sentence agrees with its subject-word in number and person ; *e.g.* "I am going" "He is going", "They are going," "He has gone", "They have gone."

There are some exceptions, usually only apparent rather than real, to this normal usage :—

(1) A collective noun, being the name of a group or collection as a unitary whole, normally takes a verb in the singular form. "The herd is coming along the road". But when the speaker is thinking of the numerous individuals who make up the collection, the plural form of the verb is occasionally used : "The lowing herd *wind* slowly o'er the lea" (Gray). Cf. "The old committee was successful in its work". "The new committee *were* not united in *their* opinions"

(2) A double subject (two subject-words joined by *and*) has a verb in the plural form, "Rama *and* Hari *have* finished *their* work, and *are* ready." (Notice also the plural form, *their*.)

But (a) if the two subject-words really denote one and the same thing, a singular verb is used, "An officer and a gentleman never does such things" "(*i.e.*, a man who is both an officer and a gentleman, the idea being that every officer should be a real gentleman and behave accordingly) ; "Death and glory is what he wants", "His life and career was one of great success".

(b) When the two parts of an apparently double subject are joined by *as well as*, *in addition to*, or *besides*, instead of *and*, the verb is singular, agreeing with the first noun, which is the real grammatical subject : "A pistol as well as some bombs was found".

(3) Where two singular co-ordinate subject-words are joined by the disjunctive conjunction *or* or *nor* (to express an alternative) the verb is in the singular form : "Either Rama *or* Hari has to go," "Neither one *nor* the other *is* willing to give up *his* holiday" (Notice also the singular form *his*.)

But when the subject-words (nominatives) are of different numbers, one singular and one plural, the verb is in the plural form : "Either he *or* they *were* wrong," the plural subject-word being put nearer to the verb, so that, the verb agreeing with the nearer subject, the difficulty is less obvious. (Even so it is easy to evade the difficulty by writing, "Either he was wrong or they were.")

(4) If two singular subject-words separated by *or* or *nor* are of the same gender, any possessive which follows will be singular and of that gender (if it refers to them) : "Neither the driver nor the guard could state *his* case properly." If the genders are different there is a difficulty.

(i) We sometimes find "Neither my brother nor my sister did *their* lessons yesterday," but this is condemned as incorrect and slovenly.

(ii) The strictly correct form is "...did *his* or *her*" ; but this is felt to be clumsy and pedantic.

The meaning can usually be given in some other way : *e.g.*, "My brother did not do his lessons, nor did my sister do hers."

(5) If the singular subject-words separated by *or* or *nor* are of different persons—two personal pronouns, or a noun (3rd person) and a 1st or 2nd personal pronoun—the verb usually agrees in person with the nearer: “Either you or he *has* to go,” “Either he or you *have* to go”, “Either you or I *am* wrong,” “Neither Rama nor I *am* going.” But here again a better way is to remodel the sentence so as to avoid the difficulty (and the temptation to use a plural verb): “Either you have to go or he has,” “Neither is Rama going nor am I”.

(6) Pronouns used with a distributive meaning, and nouns with a distributive adjective (see § 175), take a singular verb.

Each boy *was* told to give up *his* exercise.

Neither of my brothers *has* been here
(not *have*.)

Everyone *was* happy and did *his* best.

(*N.B.* The following possessive is *his* not *their*. If the reference is to persons of both sexes there is a tendency to use *their*: “Each boy and girl was told to do *their* best”; but in careful speech “his or her best” is substituted.)

§ 293. Pronouns agree in number, person, and gender with the nouns for which they stand; but the case of a pronoun depends on the work that it does in its own sentence or clause; *e.g.*, if it is the object of a verb or a preposition its case is accusative.

Do you see that man? *He* is the man
whom I followed.

The girl to *whom* I spoke is not here; or
at least I cannot see *her*.

When a relative pronoun seems to have two antecedents of different persons it usually agrees in person with the latter, and regulates the form of the verb accordingly: "Are you the man who *comes* here every day?"

§ 294. **Apposition.** A noun or noun-equivalent which defines more fully the meaning of another noun or noun-equivalent, which immediately precedes it, it is said to be in **apposition** to it. The nouns and pronouns that in this way denote the same person or thing are in the same case.

Akbar, *the Great Emperor*, built a palace
at Fatehpur Sikri, *a place* about 20 miles
from Agra.

My uncle, *Rampada Babu*, is visiting Delhi,
the capital of India.

Emperor and *Rampada Babu* are nominative in apposition to *Akbar*, and *uncle*; *place* and *capital* are accusative in apposition to *Fatehpur* and *Delhi*.

Similarly with "He, *the wisest man* of his age, did not grow very old"; *man* is accusative in apposition to *he*.

We may have an appositional clause (noun clause) instead of an appositional phrase: "The general sent an order *that one battalion should*

advance". The noun-clause here defines the nature of the order.

When *it* is used as formal or provisional subject or object (see § 129), the words that form the real subject are grammatically in apposition to *it*.

(1) *It is hard to write well.*

(2) He considered *it* base to run away in battle.

(3) *It is said that all our students have passed.*

(4) We thought *it* possible that he would come.

(1) and (2) infinitive phrases in apposition to *it* as (1) formal subject (2) formal object ; (3) and (4) noun clauses in apposition to *it* as (3) formal subject (4) formal object.

§ 295. The nominative absolute construction.

A noun or pronoun used with a participle (expressed or understood) in a phrase which has *no grammatical connection* with any word in the rest of the sentence is said to be in the **nominative absolute** case and the phrase is said to be "absolute" (free).

Dinner being over, we all went for a walk.

Dinner over, we all went...(being understood).

Caesar having crossed the river, the Germans retreated

(But *N.B.* in "Having eaten our dinner, we all went out" *having eaten* refers to *we*, "having eaten our dinner" being an adjl. phrase qualifying *we*.)

NOTE 1. The infinitive also appears to be used absolute ly e.g., "*To be brief*, I am surprised at you".

2. The properly absolute construction "*All things (being) considered*, you have chosen wisely" has given currency to the doubtful expression "*Considering all things*, you have.....", when "considering" really refers to the speaker ("considering all things, I am of opinion that you have...").

EXERCISE 113

Do the following sentences need correcting? If so how? Give reasons. (1) A carriage and pair was waiting at the station. (2) The turmoil and confusion in the hall was appalling. (3) Neither his friends nor he were present. (4) Many a flower is born to blush unseen. (5) Time and tide wait for no man. (6) The Duke of Wellington, that great soldier and statesman, lived to a very old age. (7) The boat being tied up, we all went home. (8) Thoroughly tired, everyone went to their beds and slept. (9) The Spartans, warriors of skill and experience, could fight better than the Persians. (10) This procession marched round the enclosure, and when they had completed the circle, made a halt.

EXERCISE 114

Point out any examples of apposition or of the nominative absolute construction in the last exercise. Construct two examples of your own.

CHAPTER XLIX

THE USE OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

§ 296. 1. In **simple sentences** or the main clauses of complex sentences :—to express a **desire** (wish or command) in the 3rd person :—“God *save* the king,” “God *be* with *you*” (More often a subjunctive equivalent : “*May* God *be*.....”).

2. In **subordinate clauses** :

(a) Noun-clauses—(i) to express **desires** :—“I wish I *were* there,” “It is desired that a reply *be given within* three days” (more often “*may be given*.”) (ii) in **dependent questions** :—“They asked whether he *were* willing to go” (The indicative form *was* is now more common).

(b) *Adverb-clauses*—

(i) of **condition** :—When the condition is contrary to fact, *i.e.* not fulfilled :—“If he *be* king, why does he not govern ?” “If he *were* here, I should be glad.”

(N. B. (a) *Should be* is a subjunctive-equivalent.

(b) If the condition may (or may not) be fulfilled the indicative is used, because the statement is one of fact, not of supposed or imagined action or inaction)

(ii) of **purpose** :—“Lock up your house lest thieves *enter* it” (now usually “that thieves *may not enter*”)

(iii) of **concession** :—“Though justice *be* thy plea, consider this” (Often *may* .

be.) "Though this *be* madness, yet there is method in it."

§ 297. Subjunctive forms have rapidly gone out of use in modern English. In some cases indicative forms have been substituted ; in other cases we use compound tenses, which may be called **subjunctive equivalents**, formed by means of the auxiliaries—*may*, *might*, *would*, and *should* (and *shall*), and the infinitive without *to*.

The uses of subjunctive equivalents.

1. In simple sentences or main clauses (*a*) to express a desire :—"May you *have* a good journey ? (*b*) where the subordinate *if* clause expresses an unfulfilled condition ; "If he were here, I *should* be glad."

2. In subordinate clauses :

(*a*) Noun clauses :

(*i*) to express desires : "We request that a reply *may be* given immediately" ;

(*ii*) in a dependent question or statement : "I think that it *would* be wrong to go now", "I asked whether you *would* be here."

(*b*) Adverb-clauses :—

(*i*) of purpose,—“I tell (told) you this, that you *may (might)* know.”

(*ii*) of concession :—"Although you *may plead* that that you *were* right, remember this."

EXERCISE 115

Pick out the subjunctives and subjunctive equivalents in the following sentences, saying whether each is in a main clause or a noun clause or an adverbial clause. (1) Thanks be to God (2) I wish I were a mile hence! (3) Take care lest you be robbed. (4) Thou your sins be scarlet, they shall be white as snow. (5) If it were true, you would be angry. (6) You were angry when it happened last year. (7) You may go. (8) Though he plead never so eloquently, I will not listen to him. (9) If I were to listen, I should be unjust to others. (10) My request is that you be merciful.

CHAPTER L

INDIRECT OR REPORTED SPEECH

§ 298. (1) Rama said "I will go".

(2) Rama said that he would go.

In sentence (1) the words "I will go", within quotation marks, are the words actually used by Rama. They are in "**direct speech.**"

In sentence (2) Rama's words are **reported** by someone else. They are given in "**indirect speech**" or "**reported speech.**"

The words "(that) he would go" are grammatically dependent on the words "Rama said". This particular kind of noun-clause (a subordinate clause of a complex sentence) is called a **dependent statement**. The words "I will go" make an independent statement capable of standing alone.

- § 299. (1) Hari said "Will it rain?"
 (2) Hari asked if it would rain.

In sentence (1) the words "Will it rain?" in direct speech (within quotation marks) form a direct or independent quotation, capable grammatically of standing alone.

In sentence (2) the words "(if) it would rain" in indirect speech form a **dependent question**.

§ 300. Similarly there may be a dependent desire. "My prayer is *that you may be prosperous*", the direct or independent form of which would be 'May you be prosperous.'

§ 301. **The change from direct to indirect or reported speech** (when reported by a third person).

(1) All pronouns are changed to the third person.

"I will come to see *you*" He said that *he* would go to see *him*.

(2) When the verb of saying (principal verb) is in the past tense, every verb in the present tense in direct speech is changed into the corresponding past tense form :—

Present indefinite (drive) into past indef. (drove).

Present continuous (is driving) into past continuous (was driving).

Present perfect (has driven) into past perfect (had driven).

Future (shall drive) into future in the past (should drive); (will drive) into (would drive).

Present subjunctive (be driven) into past subj. (were driven).

Present subjunctive (may drive) into past subj. (might drive).

After a verb of saying in the present tense no change is required.

(3) Demonstratives (pronouns, adjectives, or adverbs) denoting nearness are changed into those denoting remoteness (time or place).

this these here hither hence now
become *that those there thither thence then*

(4) Statements of general truth may remain unchanged :—"Plato taught that truth is always beautiful, even on this earth."

(5) Suitable introductory words have sometimes to be supplied :—*e.g.*, (a) *whether* before a dependent question; (b) *that* before a statement (c) *Let* before a dependent desire. "Come to London at once". "*Let him come* to London..." or introduce some words like "He bade him come..." "He asked him to come..."

EXAMPLES—

Direct speech. "Lord Earl" said the messenger "I come to bid thee yield us thy treasure. Buy us off, and we will give you peace."

Indirect speech (reported by a third person). The messenger said that he came to the earl to

bid him yield them his treasure. Let him buy them off and they would give him peace. (*Or if he would buy them off, they would.....*).

N.B. If the speech is reported by the person addressed the pronouns are changed accordingly. The speech above, if reported by the Earl, would be :—The messenger told me that he came to me to bid me yield them my treasure. If I would buy them off, they would give me peace.

Direct speech : Cæsar said to them, "If I am willing to forget your old insults, can I also ignore my recent injuries at your hands?"

Reported speech (by a third person) : Cæsar asked them whether, if he were willing to forget his old insults, he could also ignore his recent injuries at their hands.

Reported speech (by them) : Cæsar asked us whether, if he were willing to forget our old insults, he could also ignore his recent injuries at our hands.

Reported (by Cæsar) : I asked them whether, if I were willing to forget their old insults, I could also ignore my recent injuries at their hands.

EXERCISE 116

Turn into indirect speech (reported by a third person) :—

(1) A father writes to his son Hari, "I have received your school report from the headmaster I am glad that you have done so well, and I shall let you go to Calcutta for your holiday."

(2) They said "We are revenue officers, and have seized these horses near the inn where we are staying, at a place about three miles from here."

Turn into direct speech :—"He said that burning houses were indeed a grievous sight, but it would be still more grievous to see their wives and children driven into captivity."

**EXERCISE 117

Turn the sentences in (1) or (2) in the last exercise into indirect speech as reported (1) by Hari, (2) by the revenue officers.

CHAPTER LI

ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES

§ 302. A complex sentence consists of a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses dependent on the main clause. Subordinate clauses are of three kinds, *viz.*, noun-clauses, adjective-clauses, and adverbial clauses, according as they do the work that is commonly done by nouns, adjectives, or adverbs. If this simple fact is remembered there need be no difficulty.

N.B. A clause differs from a phrase in having a finite verb, or subject and predicate of its own.

§ 303. (*i*) A noun-clause may, like any other noun-equivalent or noun, stand

(*a*) as subject to the principal verb (in the main clause) ;

- (b) as object to the principal verb (in the main clause) ;
 - (c) as object to a preposition in the main clause ;
 - (d) in apposition to the subject or object (or formal subject or object) of the main clause.
 - (e) as complement to a verb of incomplete predication.
- e.g.* (a) "*That you should be dishonest* gives me sorrow";
- (b) "I know *that you will regret it*",
"Tell me *what you want*".
- (c) "I have no information as to *where he is staying*."
- (d) (i) It is true *that he is very ill*.
(ii) I think it's disgraceful *that you should tell lies*.
- (e) His ambition was *that he should be a doctor*.

What gives me sorrow ? Ans. "That you should be dishonest" which is equivalent to a noun, e.g., "Your dishonesty." What is true ? Ans. "That he is ill," (= "Your illness"), What is his ambition ? Ans. "That he should be..." which is equivalent to a noun phrase with an infinitive, i.e., a verb noun, "*To be* a doctor."

N. B. (a) A noun-clause often begins with the conjunction *that* ; but it may begin with an adverbial connective, (or interrogative adverb) e.g., *when, where, why, how*, ("I

know *why you have come*'), and *that* may be omitted and understood ('I know you will *regret it*').

(b) Adjective clauses are often introduced by the relative pronoun *that*.

(c) The only safe method then is to ask what work is done by the clause. A noun-clause will give an answer to a question asked by means of "what?" ; and it can often be replaced by a noun or a noun-phrase.

NOTE. A noun clause often takes a form like the following: "Of this I am certain, *that he will never improve*," where it is in apposition to *this*.

(ii) An adjectival clause is a clause which, like an adjective, describes or defines what is denoted by a noun or noun-equivalent in the main clause.

It is usually introduced by a relative (relative pronoun or relative adverb) :— 'That is the man *whom I saw at the door*'. "This is the place *where I left my book*". But the relative pronoun is often omitted and understood when, if retained, it would have been the object of a verb or preposition in the subordinate clause ; e.g., "That is the man *I saw at the door*"

N.B. An adjectival clause answers a question asked by means of "Which?" or "What kind of?"

NOTE. *That* is sometimes rather loosely perhaps, used as equivalent to a relative adverb ; e.g. "The reason *that* I wrote is..." (= why, for which) ; "At the time *that* I was writing..." (= when, at which).

(iii) An adverbial clause does the work that is commonly done by an adverb, modifying a verb or adjective (generally used predicatively) or adverb in the main clause. It is introduced by an

adverbial connective, (subordinating conjunction) and is equivalent to an adverb of time, place, cause, etc. For examples see Ch. XLVII, subordinating conjunctions.

NOTE. (a) *That* is sometimes used as equivalent to an adverbial connective, e.g., "I am sorry *that you are going*," where *that* is equivalent to *because*. It also regularly introduces clauses; "You have grown so much *that I hardly know you*."

(b) In comparisons we often find an apparent compound conjunction like *as if*, which is the result of a clause being understood and omitted, e.g., "He looks *as if* he were dying," i.e., *as he would look* if he were dying; "He writes better *than when* he was last examined," i.e., than he wrote when he was...

(c) With regard to adverb-clauses expressing comparison and result, e.g.,

You have grown so much *that I hardly knew* you

He writes as well *as his brother does*.

He is more skilful *than you are*.

it may not be easy to decide whether they modify the whole predicate (which is perhaps the most likely), or merely the preliminary *so*, *as*, or *more*, with or without the accompanying adverb or adjective (*so much*, *as well*, *more skilful*).

(d) An adverbial clause often answers questions asked by means of interrogative adverbs "When? Where? Why? How?"

(e) Nominative absolute phrases are generally equivalent to adverbial clauses; e.g. "*All being well*, we shall go" = if all is well... "*Dinner being over*, we went out" = when dinner was over...

§ 304. Some difficulties :

(a) "I will maintain *what I have said*". "What I have said" is the object of *will maintain* and is therefore a noun clause. It is, however, a subordinate clause that is *part of* the main clause.

Main clause—"I will maintain what I have".

Subject—*I*.

Predicate—will maintain

Object—the noun-clause "what I have said"

Subordinate clause—"what I have said"—
noun-clause, object of *maintain*.

Subject—*I*

Predicate—have said

Object—what

Sometimes it is analysed thus—

Main clause—"I will maintain that"

Object—that (understood as part of *what*)

Subordinate clause—"which I have said"—
adjectival clause, qualifying "*that*"

Object—which (understood as part of
what).

It is true that "what" is the *equivalent* of "that which", but the actual sentence has "what" and not "that which".

What, however, may also be an interrogative pronoun in such a sentence as "Tell me *what you want*" where "what you want" is a dependent question and therefore a noun-clause.

(b) When a relative clause (clause introduced by a relative) is attached to a noun to define its meaning or to describe the thing denoted, it is called a **restrictive** or **defining** clause, "The horse that is in the stable is an Arab". Here the adjectival clause is necessary in order to make clear which particular horse is meant.

When the relative clause refers to an antecedent that is already defined and so merely gives further details it is called a **continuative** clause : "My horse, which is in the stable, is an Arab".

The possessive *my* points out quite clearly *which* horse is meant, and the clause "which is in the stable" merely goes on to give further information which may be useful but is not absolutely necessary.

A restrictive or defining clause is subordinate.

A continuative clause is really co-ordinate, (though apparently and in form subordinate); *i.e.*, it really makes up a double sentence, not a complex sentence.

N.B. (i) A restrictive clause *may* be introduced by "that" ;

a continuative clause is *never* introduced by "that".

(ii) a continuative clause is put between commas, but a restrictive clause is not.

See § 168 note for another example and explanation.

(c) (1) He gave orders *that the infantry should advance*. (2) I approved of the orders *that he gave*.

In sentence (1) "that the...advance" is a noun-clause in apposition to *orders*, the object of the main clause. (We might have said "He *ordered*

that the infantry should advance" where "that... advance" is a noun-clause, object of *ordered*.)

In sentence (2) "that he gave" is an adjectival clause qualifying and defining *orders*. *That* might here be replaced by "which"; but not in sentence (1).

Similarly with

(1) I hold the belief that this is wrong
(noun clause).

(2) I dislike the beliefs that he holds
(adjl. clause).

(d) A subordinate clause may have a subordinate clause within itself: "I asked him why he did not come to see me when he was in Calcutta"

(i) *Main clause*: "I asked him why etc."

(ii) *Subordinate clause*: "Why he...Calcutta",
noun-clause object of *asked* in the main
clause (i).

(iii) *Subordinate clause*: "When he was in
Calcutta", adverbial clause, modifying
"come to see me" in subordinate clause
(ii).

(e) It will be seen that we cannot be guided alone
by the word that introduces the subordinate
clause.

Where, when, why may introduce clauses of
all three kinds. So perhaps may *that*.

Noun clause. I know that he will come.

I wonder when he will come.

- Adjl. clause.* I know the man that came.
I can tell you the time when he arrived.
- Advl. clause.* You have grown so much that I hardly know you.
I shall go when he has gone.
(I am glad that you have come.)

EXAMPLES OF ANALYSIS

(1) A man whom I respect very much thinks that my conduct was wrong.

General analysis :

- | | |
|---|---|
| (a) A man thinks that my conduct was wrong. | <i>Main clause.</i> |
| (b) Whom I respect much | <i>Subordinate adjl. clause, qualifying "a man" in (a),</i> |
| (c) That my conduct was wrong. | <i>Subordinate noun clause, object of "thinks" in (a)</i> |

Detailed analysis (if required) ;

As for simple sentences ; see Ch. XXI.

(2) A good story that illustrates my point was told me by my father, to whom it was related when he was in London by a man who was the victim of the accident that it narrates.

General analysis :

- | | |
|---|--|
| (a) A good story was told me by my father | <i>main clause (1)</i> |
| (b) That illustrates my point. | <i>subordinate adjectival clause qualifying "story" in (a)</i> |
| (c) To whom it was related by a man | <i>continuative main clause (2) (apparently subordinate, but really) coordinate with (a)</i> |

- | | |
|--|---|
| (d) When he was in London | <i>subordinate clause, modifying "was related" in (c)</i> |
| (e) Who was the victim of the accident | <i>subordinate adjectival clause, qualifying "the man" in (c)</i> |
| (f) That it relates | <i>subordinate adjectival clause, qualifying "accident" in (e).</i> |

Detailed analysis :

As for simple sentences, if required.

EXERCISE 118

Analyse.

- (1) I should like to know when you are coming.
- (2) The money I lost was found yesterday.
- (3) We shall go out to play, when school is finished.
- (4) A tree fell just where we had been sitting.
- (5) I can see the house which we used to live in.
- (6) I hope that you will have a good journey.

** EXERCISE 119

Analyse :—(1) I did not like the resolutions that he brought forward. (2) At the meeting he brought forward a resolution that ladies should not become members. (3) That you have wronged me doth appear in this (4) I will show you the place where the battle was fought. (5) You talk as if you had been successful. (6) It is not likely that he will succeed, since he is not respected by those who knew him well when he was younger. (7) The fact that you were careless cannot be denied. (8) There is the beggar we used to give money to.

APPENDIX

(a) NUMBER.

(i) (a) Some foreign plurals (see § 99 for others) —

Addendum	addenda	Genus	genera
Analysis	analyses	Larva	larvac
Appendix	appendices	Oasis	oases
Axis	axes	Phenomenon	phenomena
Criterion	criteria	Stratum	strata
Erratum	errata	Vertex	vortices

(b) GENDER (see § 118).

(i) Distinguished by different words :—

<i>Musculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>
Bachelor	maid, spinster	Hart	roe, hind
Boar	sow	Horse, stallion	mare
Boy	girl	Husband	wife
Brother	sister	King	queen
Buck	doe	Lord	lady
Bull <i>or</i> ox	cow	Male	female
Bullock, steer	heifer	Man	woman
Cock	hen	Nephew	niece
Colt <i>or</i> foal	filly	Papa	mamma
Dog	bitch	Ram	ewe
Drone	bee	Sir	madam
Duck	drake	Sire (<i>a horse</i>)	dam
Earl	countess	Sloven	slut
Father	mother	Son	daughter
Friar, monk	nun	stag	hind
Gander	goose	Uncle	aunt
Gentleman	lady	Wizard	witch

(ii) Also notice the following contracted forms —

Murderer	murderess	Lad	lass
Sorcerer	sorceress	Founder	foundress
Benefactor	benefactress	Songster	songstress
Waiter	waitress		

(iii) Foreign words :—

Czar	czarina	Sultan	sultana
Bean	belle	Don	donna
Signor	Signora (a married lady = Mrs.)		
	Signorita (an unmarried lady = Miss.)		

N. B. *Mistress* when prefixed to the name of a married lady is contracted, being written *Mrs.* and pronounced *missir*.

Sir when prefixed to the name of a knight or baronet must be used with the full name or once that has been mentioned with the Christian name, *Sir William Jones*, *Sir William*, never before the surname alone, as *Sir Jones* (though *Sir W. Jones* is allowed in writing). But *Lady Jones* would be correct for his wife.
